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ON

THE BASIS OF THE SEVENTH EDITION OF THE GERMAN

#### CONVERSATIONS-LEXICON.

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# ENCYCLOPÆDIA AMERICA

CATHOLIC EPISTLES; a name given to seven epistles of the New Testament, berause written to Christians in general, and not to believers of some particular place. They are, one of James, two of Peter, three of John, and one of Jude.

CATHOLICISM. (See Roman Catholic

Church.)

CATILINE, Lucius Sergius, was just entering on the ago of manhood when Rome became a prey to the rage of Marius and Sylla. Of patricion birth, he attached himself to the cause of the latter, had some share in his success, and sull more in his proscriptions. Murder, rapine and conflagration were the first deeds and pleasures of his youth. His influence on the fortunes of the disordered republic became important. He appears to have served in the army with h reputation. He was peculiarly dangerous and formidable, as his power of dissimulation enabled him to throw a veil over his vices. Such was his art, that, while he was poisoning the minds of the Roman youth, he gained the triendship and esteem of the severe Ca ulus. Equally well qualified to decerve the good, to intimidate the weak, and to inspire his own boldness into his depraybrought against him by Clodius, for crime? and intercourse with a vertal, and for the errors extertions, of which he had been wavelength while processed in Africa. He wavelsuspected, also, of having murdered his tirst wife and his son. A confederacy of many young men of high birth and daring character, who saw no other means of extricating themselves from their enormous debts, than by obtaining the highest offices of the state, having been formed, Catiline was placed at their head. This eminence he owed chiefly

to his connexion with the old soldiers of Sylla, by means of whom he kept in awd the towns near Rome, and even Rome it elf. At the same time, he numbered among his adherents not only the worst and lowest of the riotous populace, but also many of the patricians, and men of consular rank. Every thing favored his audacious scheme. Pompey was pursuing the victories which Lucullus had prepared for him; and the latter was but a feelife supporter of the patriots in the senate, who wished him, but in vain, to put himself at their head. Crassus, who had delivered Italy from the gladiators, was now striving, with mad eagerness, after power and riches, and, instead of opposing, countenanced the growing influence of Catiline, as a means of his own aggrandizement. Clesar, who was laboring to revive the party of Marius, spared Cauline, and, perhaps, even encouraged him. Only two Romans remained determined to uphold their falling country. Cate and Cicero; the latter of necessary for the task. The conspirators were now whereing the elevation in Cariline and one of his accomplete to the consulship. Then this was effected, they ed associates, he evaded two accusations element a obtain possession of the public treasures and the property of the citizens, under various pretexts, and especially by means of proscription. It is not probable, however, that Catiline had promised them the liberty of burning and plundering Rome. Cicero had the courage to stand candidate for the consulship, in spite of the impending danger, of the extent of which he was perfectly aware. Neither insults, nor threats, nor even riots and attempts to assassinate him, deterred him from his purpose; and, being supported by the rich citizens, he gained'

his effection, I.C. 65. All that the party of Catiline could accomplish was the of the hope of gaining the consulship the following year. For this purpose, he re-doubled the measures of terror, by which he had laid the foundation of his power. Meanwhile, he had lost some of the most important members of his conspiracy. Antony had been prevailed upon or compelled by Cicero to remain neutral. Cæsar and Crassus had resolved to do the same. Piso had been killed in Spain. Italy, however, was destitute of troops. The veterans of Sylla only waited the signal to take up arms. This signal was now given by Catiline. The centuri-on Manlius appeared among them, and formed a camp in Etruria. Cicero was on the watch: a fortunate accident disclosed to him the counsels of the conspirators. One of them, Curms, was on intimate terms with a woman of doubtful reputation, Fulvia by name, and had acquainted her with their plans. Through this woman, Cicero learnt that two knights had undertaken to assassinate him at his house. On the day which they had fixed for the execution of their plan, they found the doors barred and guarded. Still Cicero delayed to make public the circumstances of a conspiracy, the progress and resources of which he wished first to ascertam. He contented himself with warning his fellow-citizens, in general terms, of the impending danger. But when the insurrection of Manlius was made known, he procured the passage of the celebrated decree, that "the consuls should take care that the coulding received no detriment." It was exceedingly difficult to seize the person of one who and soldiers states command, both in and our or Rome; s. I more difficult would it be to prove his go t before the who were accomplices with him, or, as loust, were willing to make use of his plans to serve their own interest. He had to choose between two evils—a revolution within the city, or a civil war: he preferred the latter. Catiline had the boldness to take his seat in the senate, known as he was to be the enemy of the Roman state. Cicero then rose and delivered that bold oration against him, which was the means of saving Rome, by driving Catiline from the city. The conspirators who remained, Lentulus Sura, Cethegus, and other infamous senstors, engaged to head the insurrection in Rome

a soon as Catiline appeared at the gates. According to Cicaro and Sallust, it was the in Sation of the conspirators to set election of Caius Antony, one of their the invation of the conspirators to set accomplices, as colleague of Cicero. This the cay on fire, and massacre the inhabitance, however, did not deprive Catiline itents. As any rate, these horrid consecutive followed from quences might have easily followed from the circumstances of the case, without any previous resolution. Leutulus, Cothegus, and the other conspirators, in the meanwhile, were carrying on their crimi-nal plots. They applied to the ambassadors of the Allobroges to transfer the war to the frontiers of Italy itself. These, however, revealed the plot, and their disclosures led to others still more important. The correspondence of the conspirators with their leader was intercepted. The senate had now a notorious crime to punish. As the circumstances of the oase did not allow of a minute observance of forms in the proceedings against the conspirators, the laws relating thereto were disregarded, as had been done in former instances of less pressing danger. Cusar spoke against immediate execution, but Cicero and Cato prevailed. Five of the conspirators were put to death. Caius Antonius was then appointed to march against Catiline, but, on the pretext of all health, gave the command to las heuteman Petrents. He succeeded m enclosing Catiline, who, seeing no way of escape, resolved to die sword in band. His followers unitated his example. The battle was fought with bitter desperation. The insurgents all fell on the spot which their leader had assigned them, and Canline at their load, at Pistoia, in Etrinia, 5th Jan., B. C. 62. The instory of Catiline's conspiracy has been written by Sallust.

CATINAT, Nicholas, marshal of France, born at Pare, 1637, quitted the profeson of the law for that of arms, after lostag a cause by a decision which appeared to him evidently unjust. He entered the cavalry, attracted the notice of Louis XIV, at the storming of Lille (1667), and was promoted. By a number of splendid deeds, he gamed the esteem and friends ship of the great Condé, particularly Ky his conduct at the battle of Sendi . I'e was sent as lieutenant-general mainst the duke of Savoy, gained the battles of Staffardo (Aug. 18, 1690) and of Marsaglia (Oct. 4, 1693), occupied Savoy and part of Piedmont, and was made marshal in In the conquered countries, his 1693. humanity and mildness often led him to spare the vanquished, contrary to the express commands of Louvois. In Flanders, he displayed the same activity, and took Ath, in 1697. In 1701, he received

the command of the army of Italy against prince Eugene; but he was straitened by the orders of his court, and was destitute , tion which he himself gave of an orstor, money and provisions, while Eugene was allowed to act with full liberty. July tish, he was defeated at Carpi. Equally apprortunate was the battle of Chiari, where Villeroi had the chief command. We was here, while rallying his troops, efter an unsuccessful charge, that he replied to an officer who represent him that death was inevitable in such an encounter, "True, death is before us, but shame behind." In spite of his representations, the French court would not believe the disasters in Savoy to be owing to the perfidy of the duke of Savoy, and Catinat was disgraced. He bore his misfortune with calniness, and died at St. Gratien, in 1712. He was a true philosopher, religious without austernty, a courtier without intrigue, disinterested and generous when in favor, and cheerful in disgrace. From his unalterable calmiess and consideration, his soldiers called him le Pere de la Penser.

Caro the Censor (Mareus Porcius), surnamed Priscus, also Sapiens and Major . (the Wise and the Elder), born 22 B. C., at Tusculum, inherited from his father, a plebeian, a small estate, in the territory of the Sabmes, which he cultivated with his own hands. He was a youth at the time of Haumbal's invasion of Italy. served his first campaign, at the age of 17, ander Fabius Maximus, when he bosieged Capua. Five years after, he fought under the same commander at the siege of Harentum. After the capture of this city, be became acquainted with the Pythagorean Nearchus, who initiated him into the stabline doctrines of his philosophy, with which, in practice, he was aiready colversant. After the war was ended, Cafe returned to his farm. As he was versed ju the laws, and a fluent speaker, he went, at day-break, to the neighboring towns, where he acted as counsellor and advo-Value cate to those who applied to him. This Flaccus, a noble and powerful Ronewes do had an estate in the vicinity, offservelegine talents and virtues of the youth, conceived an affection for him, and persuaded hun to remove to Rome, where he promised to assist him with his influence and patronage. A few rich and high-born families then stood at the head of the republic. Cate was poor and unknown, but his eloquence, which some compared to that of Demosthenes, and the integrity and strength of his charatter, soon drew the public attention to

him. In court, and in the popular as-semblies, he answered to the fine definiand which Quinctilian has preserved to us; "a virtuous man skilled in the art of speaking well." At the age of 30, he went as military tribune to Sicily. In the following year, he was quester, at which period there commenced, between him and Scipio, a rivalry and harred, which lasted till death. Cate, who had returned to Home, accused Scipio of extravagance; and, though his rivel was acquitted of the charge, this zeal in the cause of the public gained Cato a great influence over the people. Five years after, having been already edile, he was chosen pretor, and obtained the province of Sardinia. His strict moderation, integrity and love of justice were here still more strongly displayed than in Rome. On this island, he formed an acquaintance with the poet, Finnus, of whom he learnt Greek, and whom he took with him to Ronie on his return. He was finally made consul, 193 B. C., with his friend Valerius Placeus for his colleague. He opposed, with all his power, the abolition of the Oppian law, passed in the pressing times of the second Punic war, forbidding the Roman women to wear more than half an ounce of gold, to dress in garments of various colors, or to wear other ornaments; but he was obliged to yield to the eloquence of the tribune Valerius, and the urgent importuout for Spain, which was in a state of rebellion. His first act was to send back to Rome the supplies which had been provided for the army, declaring that the war ought to support the soldiers. He gained everal victories with a newlyresect army, reduced the province to submusion, and returned to Italy, where the honor of a triangle and granted to find. Scarcely had be descended from his triumphal car, with he put off the toga of and coilsul, arrayed himself in the soldier's habit, and followed Sempronius to Throce. He afterwards put hunself under the command of the consul Manius Action, to fight against Antiochus, and to carry on the war in Thessaly. By a bold march, he made himself master of the Callidronns, one of the highest peaks of the mountain pass of Thermopyles, and thus decided the issue of the battle. brought the intelligence of this victory to Rome, 169 B. C. Seven years after, he obtained, in spite of a powerful factions opposed to him, the most honorable, and at the same time the most feared, of all

cistracies of Rome, the censorship. He had not conversed for the office, but shad only expressed his willingness to fill . ring flacous was chosen his colleague, ins the only person qualified to assist him in correcting the public disorders, and refulfilled this trust with inflexible rigor; and, though his measures caused him some obloquy and opposition, they met, in the end, with the highest applicuse; and, when he resigned his office, it was resolved to errot a statue to him with an honorable inscription. He appears to have been quite indifferent to the honor; and when, before this, some one expressed his wonder that no statue had been · crected to him, he answered, "I would rather have it asked why no image has been erected to Cato than why one has." Still he was not void of self-complacency. "Is he a Cato, then?" he was accustonied to say, when he would excuse the errors of another. Cato's political life was a continued worfare. He was continually accusing, and was himself accused with animosity, but was always acquitted. His last public commission was an embassy to Carthage, to settle the dispute between the Carthagimons and king Massmissa. . It is said that this journey was the original cause of the destruction of Carthage; for Cato was so astomshed at the rapid recovery of this city from its losses, that he ever after ended every, speech of his with the well-known words, "Pratrica censeo, Carthaginem esse delendam" (1 am also of opinion that Carthage must be destroyed). He died a year after his return (147 B. C.), 25 years old. Cato, who was so frugal of the public revenues was net indifferent to riches. He was rigorous w severe towards his slaves, and considered them out in the best of property. He made every derition tol promote and anprove agriculture. In his the new harvaye himself up to the company of his friches and the pleasures of the table. To this · the verses of Horace allude-

> Narratur et priser Catonis Super mero caluisse varus

He was twice married, and had a son by each of his wives. His conduct as a husband and a father was equally exemplary. He composed a multitude of works, of which the only one extant is that De Restrict. Those of which the loss is most to be regretted are his orations, which Ciceromentions in terms of the highest encomium, and his history of the origin

of the Roman people, which is frequently quoted by the old historiers.

CATO, Marcus Porcius (called, to distinguish him from the censor, his great grandfather, Cato of Dica, the place of his death), was born 93 Bi,C., and, acter the death of his parents, was brought up in the bouse of his uncle, Living Drivsus. He early discovered great matural of judgment and firminess of characters. It is related of him, that, in his 14th year, when he saw the heads of several profit spribed persons in the house of Sylla, by whose orders they had been mardered, a he demanded a sword of his teacher, if 6 stab the tyrant, and free his country from: servitudea With his brother by the mother's side, Capio, he lived in the tenderest friendship. Cato was chosen priest of Apollo. He formed an intimacy with the Stoic Antipater of Tyre, and ever remained true to the principles of the Store philosophy. His first appearance in public was against the tribunes of thepeople, who wished to full down a basilion creeted by the censor Caio, which was in their way. On this occasion, he displayed that powerful eloquence, whichafterwards rendered him so formidable. and won the cause. He served his first campagn as a volunteer in the way against Spartneys, and distinguished him- . self so highly, that the pretor Gelhas awarded him a prize, which he refused. He was sent as military tribune to Macedonia. When the term of his office had expired, he travelled into Asia, and carried the Stoic Athenodorus with him to Rome. He was next made questor, and executed his difficult trust with the superest integrity, while he had the spirit to prosecute the public officers for then acts of extertion and violence. His conduct, gamed him the admiration and love of the Romans, so that, on the last day of his questorship, he was escorted to his house; by the whole assembly of the people. The fame of his virtue spread far and Wide. In the games of Flora, the dancors. were not allowed to lay aside their py ments as long as Cato was present troubles of the state did not permit him to remain in seclusion. The example of Sylla, in usurping supreme power, was followed by many ambitious inen, whose mutual discensions were all that saved the tettering constitution from immediate ruin. Crassus hoped to purchase the sovereignty with his gold; Pompey.experted that it would be soluntarily couforred upon him; and Casar, superior to both in talent, united himself to both, and

**阿尔克克斯克克克斯克斯**斯 made use of the wealth of the one, and death or Unsus, we can commonous the reputation of the other, to attain his increased, and Cato, as the only means of two objects. At the head of the senate, preventing greater will, supposed that the sole prop of the republic, stood Catules. Cicero and Cata. Lucullus, who stood very high in the favor of the army, tion was adopted. The year following, withich he had so victoriously commanded. Cato lost, the consulation by refusing to inight alone have upheld the senate, had take the steps necessary for obtaining in the favor desirous to enjoy his. At this time the civil was broke out. inight alone have uponed to enjoy his At this time the civil was virtue to enjoy his At this time the civil was virtue was virtue to the care. Cato, then propretor in Sixily, on the artific of the commonwealth. Cato, keeping "rival of Curio with three of Control of the camp alcof from all parties, served the common-realth with sagacity and courage; but he aften injured the cause, which he was bying to benefit by the inflexibility of his and when it broke out, he put on mourn-character. He was on the way to his ing in token of his grief. Pompey, havestate, when he met Metellus Nepos, who was travelling to Romo to canvuss for the tribumeship, Knowing him to be a dangerous man, Cato returned immediately, stood candidate for the office himself, and was chosen, together with Metellus. About this time, the conspiracy of Catiline broke out. Cute supported, with all his power, the consul Cicero, first gave bim publicly the name of father of his country, and urged, in a fine speech preserved by Sallust, the rigorous punishment of the traitors. He opposed the proposition of Metellus Nepos to recall Pompey from Asia, and give him the command against Catiline, and came near losing his life in a riot excited against him on this account by his colleague and After the return of Pompey, he frustrated many of his ambitious plans, and first predicted the consequences of his union with Crassus and Casar. He atterwards Apposed, but in vam, the division of lands in Campana. Casar at that time abused his power so untel as to send Cato to prison, but was constrained, by the murmurs of the people, to set June. His resolution was taken. On the hun at liberty. The triumvirate, in order woning before the day which he had fixto remove him to a distance, had him sent to Cyprus, to depose king Ptolemy, under some frivolous protext. He was compelled to obey, and executed his comregistion with so much address that he en- Anticipating his intentions, his friends riched the treasury with a larger sum than and over been deposited in it by any private man. In the mean time, he continged his opposition to the triumvirate. Endeavoring to sill went the passage of the Tribonian lattaschich invested Crasas second time curested; but the people followed him in a body to the prison, and his enumies were compolled to release him. Being afterwards made pretor, he carried into execution a law against bribery, that displeased all parties. After the

at Dyrrachium. He had still been in hopes to prevent the war by negotiation; ing been victorious at Dyrachium, left Cato behind to guard the military chest and magazine, while he pushed after his rival. For this reason, Cato was not present at the battle of Pharsalia, after which he sailed over with his troops to Cyrene, in Africa. Here he learned that Pompey's father-in-law, Scipio, had gone to Juba, king of Mauritania, where Varus had collected a considerable force. Cato immediately set off to join him, and, after undergoing hunger, thirst and every hardship, reached Utica, where the two 'armies effected a junction. The soldiers wished him to be mair general, but he gave this office to Scipio, and took the command in litica, while Scipio and Labienus sallied out against Casar. Cato had advised them to protract the war, but they ventured an engagement, in which they were entirely defeated, and Africa submitted to the victor. Cato had. at tirst determined to defend himself to the last, with the senators in the place; but he afterwards abandoned this plan, and dismissed all who wished to leave ed upon for executing the took a tranquil meal, and dispassed various philosophical subjects. He then retired to his chainber, and read the Phado of Plato. had taken away his sword. On finding that it was gone, he called his slaves, and demanded it with apparent equanizaty; but when they still delayed to bring it, he struck one of the slaves, who was endeavoring to pacify him. His son and his friends came with tears, and besought him to refrain from his purpose. At first he repreached his son for disobedience, then calmly advised those present to submit to Casar, and dismissed all but the philosophers Demetrius and Apollosius, whom he asked if they knew any way by

which he could continue to live without being false to his principles. They were silent, and left him, weeping. He then received his sword joyfully, again read Phado, slept awhile, end, on awaking, sent to the port to inquire if his friends had departed. He heard, with a sigh, that the sea was tempestuous. He had again sunk into slumber, when word was brought him that the sea was calm, and that all was tranquil in the harbor. appeared satisfied, and was scarcely alone when he stabled himself with his sword. The people rushed m, and took advantage of a swoon, into which he had fallen, to bind up his wounds; but, on coming to himself, he tore off the bandages, and expired (44 B. C.). The Uticans buried him honorably, and erected a statue to But Caesar, when he heard the news of his death, exclaimed, "I gradge thee thy death, since thou hast gradged me the honor of sparing thy life." The truly Roman virtue of Cato has been celchrated by Lucan, in his Phaisalia, in a truly Roman style, with the words

Treura causa di criscuit sed vieta Calom

CATOPTRIES (from but store, a Burror): the science which trents of reflected light. (See Optics)

Cars, June , born in 1577, at Bronwershaver, in Zerbaid; one of the fathers of the Duich language and poetry. He studied at Leeden and Orleans. In 1027 and 1631, he was ambassador to England, and afterwards grand pensioner of Hol-His poetry is distinguished for simplicity, narrele, richness of unagreation, and winning though suspecteding morality. His works consist of allegones, according to the taste of his traces, poems on the different ages and saturbour of Norway to the Laund the Danish islands life, idyle, &c., He died in 1660.

CATSAUR. [See define and Quart".] CATSAUR. Mouve 188; a range of mountains in New York much the high-They extend along to est in the state. their base is at the near st point, eight indes distant The principal summits are in Greene county. The two most · clevated peaks are Round Top and High The former, according to the measuroment of captum Partridge, is '3804 feet above the level of tide water; and the latter, 3718 feet. The Catshill mountains present scenery of singular beauty and grandeur, and have become a noted resert of travellers during the suromer. (In a level tract of about 7 acres, ealled Pine Orchard, elevated 2114 feet

above the level of tide water, a large and commodious house has been erected for the accommodation of visitors. it is situated directly on the brow of the mountain, and commands an enchanting view of the country on both sides of the Hudson, embracing a tract about 100 4 miles in length and 50 in breadth. place, which is 12 miles from the town of Catskill, is approached by a good turnpike road, which winds up the sade of the mountain. Two nules west of Pine Orchard are the fine cascades of the Kaaterskill, a stream which is supplied by two small lakes situated high in the mountains. The upper fall is 175 feet as height and a few rods below is the other, of 80 feet, both perpendicular. stream passes into a deep and very preturesque ravine, which is bordered by mountains rising abruptly 1000 or 1500 feet.

Cyrser. (See Ketchup.)

Cattaro: a seaport in Dalmatia, capital of a circle of the same name (formerly called Venetian Albania), at the bottom of the gulf of Cattaro (borche d. Catta.o), on the E. side of the Adrianc: 25 index W NeW, Scotari, 30 S. S. E. Ragusa; Ion 48 - 58 .E., lat. 427 177 N.; population, 2500. It is a bishop's see - It convoir a cathedral, 17 Catholic churches and chapels, I Greek church, and an hospital. It has a remarkable harbor, one of the most secure in Europe, being defended by a eastle and strong battlements, and enclosed with rocks of such height, that the syn is seen at wrater only a few hours in the day. Population of the chele, 31,570. square males, 200

Carracar, a large gulf of the North sea, between North Juffuid to the W., of Zealand, Lunen, &c. to the S.; about 120 miles from N. to F. and between 60 and 70 from E. to W. The adverse, winds which often prevail here render the navigation dangerous. The Cattegat the west of the Hudson, from which is noted for its herring fishery. It contanes the islands Samson, Author, Lesson and Hertzholm.

Carti; one of the most remouned and valuant German tribes. They inhabited what is now Hesse, also part of Francoma and Westphaha. They carried on bloody wars with the Herminduri and Cherusci In the time of Caesar, they dwelt on the Lahn, and opposed him with effect. Drusus defeated without roducing them. In the reign of Marcus Aurelius, they made incursions into Germany and Thrace, but were afterwards defeated by Didms Juli-

anus. In 392, they made their last appearance in history in union with the Franks. According to Casar, their territory was divided into 100 districts, each of which was obliged to send annually . 1000 men into the field, whose place was, supplied the following year by those who had before remained at home to cultivate the ground. Their food was milk, cheese and game: their dress, the skins of ant-Their limited princes, who goterned in connexion with a diet, annually distributed the lands among the families. (See Germania.)

CATULLUS, Caius Valerius, a flanous Roman poet, born, B. C. 86, at Verona (according to some, at Firmium, usmall town on a peninsula of lake Benacus, now lago di Garda), of rich and respectable parents, went, in his youth, to Rome, where his accomplishments soon won fina the favor of those who adorned that spiendal era. He was the friend of Cicero, of Planeus Cuma, and Cornelius Nepos; to the last he subsequently dedicated the collection of his poems. This collection is not of great extent, but shows what he was empable of doing in several kinds of metry, had he preferred a steady course of study to pleastace and marelling. Probony a part of his poems have not come town to ds. Of the merit of his productions, there has been but one opinion Tibella- and Oral calogize him; and Marrial, at one of his epigranis, grants to four asone a superioray over limiself. In sporting composition and in epitions, ston he keeps within the proper timits of that species of poerry, he is a model. He speccoded, also, in heroic verse, as in is beautiful episodo of Ariadue, which pricate to have inspired the post who offerwards sing of Dido. He was the tast of the Romans who successfully immay datha Greek lyne poetry. The four wiles of his that remain to us make us test a lively regret for the loss of the thers. A weighty objection, however, connect the Cancusus with the other against most of his writings, is their hcomoveness and indeheavy. The common opinion is, that he died 57 B. C., in the 30th year of his age. Scaliger maintams, but without sufficient proof, that he died in his 71st year. The edition of his works by Volpius (Padua, 1737), and that of Doring (Leipsic, 1768--90, 2 vols.), deserve honorable mention. His poems are usually published with those of Ta-bullus and Properties.

CAUBLIA OF CARUL. (See Affichmistan.) CAUCASES; a chain of mountains in

Western Asia, extending from south-east to north-west, and occupying the isthmus (containing 127,140 square miles) hetween the Black and Caspian seas. The length is computed at 644 miles; the breadth is various; from Mosdok to Tiffes it may be estimated at 184 miles. Torrents, precipies and avalanthes render the mountains almost impassable. The Caucasus is divided into two parallel chains... The central ridge, from which the mounthing fall off on each side, consists of various sorts of granite. The summits are covered with snow and 1ce, and are mostly harren; the lower parts are clothed with thick forests. On the western declivity is the Elliurs, which a Russian measure-ment makes 16,700 feet high. The Casa-beg is 17,388 feet high. The most clevated summat (the Snowy mountain) is on the eastern side, west of the Cuban. It was first ascended by a European traveller in 1810. It is also called Schahdagh (King's nonmann) and Schak-Elburs: Elburs being the common name of all the high, conical summus rising from the cham of the Caucasus. The lunt of perpetual snow on these mountains is 1890 feet higher than on the Aloine a gions of Sivoy and Switzerland. Two of the passes, or galas, as they are often called, are remarkable—the Caucasian pass and the Albanian or Caspian pass. mong the ancients as well as moderns. Most of the rivers, which take their rise in the Caucasus, flow in an easterly derection to the Caspian sea, or in a westerly course to the Black sea. On the northcan de lamy, the Terek flews easterly into the Caspian, and the Calain westerly into the Black sea, beyond these rivers, the mountamous chain sinks down, by degrees, to the sandy plants in the south of Rassa. On the southern declivity, the har flows easterly anto the Caspian, and the Riora (called by the ancidate the Phasis) westerly mus the Bluckesca: hetond these river also the mountains of Turkish and Persian Armonia, which chams of Western Asia. The highest ridge of the Cancasian chain is rugged and barren, but the southern declivity is extremely fruitful. The whole surface of the country abounds in forests and fountame, erchards and vineyards, cornfields and pastures, in 11th afternation. Grapes and various kinds of fleshy fruits, chestnurs and figs, grow spontaneously. Grain of every description, ace, cotton and hemp flourish abundantly. But agriculture is much neglected; purtly owing to the indolence of the inhabitants, and partly to

their want of numbers and of security, as the people of the mountains, particularly the Lesghiaus, in their plundering expeditions, rob the cultivators of the fruits of their industry, and carry off the men for slaves. There are multitudes of wild animals of every description liere. pheasant is a native. The mineral kingdom is full of the richest treasures, which are nearly untouched. Mineral waters abound, and there are fountains of petroleum and napliths in many districts. Some formams throw up a sline with the pe-troleum, which, being deposited, forms hills, styled by the natives greening moun-The medicinal baths of Caucasia are called by the general name of the baths of Alexander. The inhabitants consist of small tribes of various origin and language-Georgians, Abassians, Lesghi. ans, Ossetes, Circassums, Tuschkents, Khists, Ingooshes, Churabulaks, Tshetshenzes, Tartars, Armenians, Jews, and, m some regions, wandering Arabs. Some of them are Greek and Armeman Chrisnans; others are Mohammedans; others, Jews; and others worship stars, mountains, rocks and trees. Many of the tebes are distinguished for the beauty, symmetry and strength of their trames, particularly the Circassians and Georgians, who are the handsomest people in the world; hence the coarming Circussian and Georgun females are sought for by the Hastern against the autueks of the undependent panarchs for their harans. The Cancasians (about 900,000 in all are partly under petty sovereigns, who often rule over a few villages, and partly under elders. The most famous are the Lesghians, who inhabit the Fastern regions, and are the terror of the Armenians, Persians, Turks and Georgians. Freedom makes them courageous and formidable to all their neighbors. They are forced, - by the want of the most common necks. sames of the, to resort to plunder. Hence their weaker neighbor, seek to appease them with presents. There has unrecage, on the other hand, protect the Losghians, effectually from all external assaults. This tribe entirely neglects the arts: and their agriculture and pasturage together are manfileent for their support. management of domestic affairs rests wholly with the females. These prepare, from soft and fine wool, cloth dresses and coverings of various kinds. The men have no employment but was and plunder, whereby to procure the necessarics of life. Every prince in the neighborhood can purchase their aid, by furnishing them with provisions and 10 or

12 rubles of silver apiecc. They undertake private expeditions, lull their enemics into security, and then attack them unawares. They show the greatest fortitude in cuduring hardships and reverses of fortune. Among them, and, in fact, throughout the Caucasus, hospitality and an implacable spirit of revenge prevail. No stranger can travel in their country without having a friendly native or Kunak to accompany him; by whom he is every where sintroduced, and kindly received and entertained. All the regions on and about the Caneasis are comprehended under the name of Cancasian countries (containing 116,078 square miles and 1,673,500 inhabitants). Since the peace concluded between Kussia and Persia, in 1813, they have belonged to the Russian empire, though without being completely subject to it; for only a small portion, the Georgian territories, have a well ordered government, mostly military. The Caueasian provinces are, at present, six in number: -1. The province of Talis or Grusia, also called Georgia (17,630 square nules, and 390,000 inhabitants: the capital, Tule, q.v.'.-2. Impretsa, called by the Russians Melitenin (13,667 square miles, and 270,000 inhabitants: capital, Counts). -3 The province of Circussia, (32,526) square indes, and 550,000 ishabitants, Here are Russon indutary posts (to guard princes of the mountains), the Great and Lettle Kabarda, Besgluston, &c.--4. Daghestan, i. e., the mountain land on the Caspan sea (1913) square untes, and 184,000 inhabatants; Derbeat is its cupital), -5. Scheven (9129 square unies, 133,000 admbitants), with Bakon, the best harber in the Caspian This region, from its alumdance of beautiful flowers, is called the Paradise of Rosis. In the neighborhood are the fountains of naph tha, to which the Parsees perform pilgrumges from India. Here, too, is the temple of fire, where a fire is kept perpetually burning .- Beyond Terek, on the northern side of Cancasus, hes, 6, the province of Cancasia (previous to 1822, the government of Georgievsk), containing 33,586 square miles, with 146,500 inhabitants, of whom 21,000 are Russians and 45,000 colonists. Here are 22 fortitied places (as Georgievsk, Kizhar (a commercial city, with a population of 9000), Alexaudrovsk, &cc.) along the Cuboth, the Kuma and the Terek, as defences against the savage tribes of the mountains. Since 1825, Stavropol has been the capital of this province, and general Jermoloff

the Scottish missionary station of Kara, founded in 1803, and enlarged by Moravians from Sarepta, with schools and a

printing-office.

CAUCHOIS-LEMAIRE, Louis Augustin François; a spirited French political writer known on account of his political persecutions. He was born in Paris, in 1789, where he went through a complete course of study, and devoted himself to the work of education. After the restoration, he published a journal, Nain Jaune (The Yollow Dwarf), which was constitutional m its sentiments, and, at the same tune, contained so much pungent satire, that it was suppressed, after the second restoration, in 1815. He was obliged to leave Paris, went to Brussels, published there the Nain Jaune refugie, and changed the title, when the work was suppressed in that place also, to that of Le Vrai Liberal (The True Liberal), under which, in spite of complaints and prosecutions, and a constant change of publishers, it still continues. Cauchors, through the representations of the French ministry, became an object of so much suspecion to the Belgian government, that he, with 19 other French refugees, was ordered to quit the country, and go to Hambara, He vas carried, by gendarmes, over the he was hospitably received, and concealed from the police, which was in pursuit of Here he composed a very energetic memorial to the states general, in which he represented his persecutions as a violation of national law. This occasioned a most animated debate in the Belgian parlianent, in which Hogendorp and Dotrenge distinguished themselves, Under Decazes but was finally rejected ministry, Cauchous returned to Paris, where he has since been an industrious contributor to several liberal journals.

Caucus: one of the very few Americanisms, which belong entirely to the U. States, and cannot be traced back to the mother country. (See Americanism.) Mr. John Pickering, in his Vocabulary or Colfection of Words and Phrases, which have been supposed to be pecuhar to the U. ritates (Boston, 1816), calls it a cant term, used, throughout the U. States, for those · meetings which are held by the different political parties, for the purpose of agreeing upon candidates for office, or concerting any measure which they intend to carry at the subsequent public or townmeetings. The earliest account he has

(q, v.) the governor. The trade is mostly seen of this extraordinary word is in Gorin the hands of the Armenians. Here is don't History of the American Bevolution, London, 1788, vol. i. p. 240, note. Gordon says that, more than 50 years previous to the time of his writing, "Samuel Adams' father, and twenty others, in Boston, one or two from the north end of the town, where all ship-business is carried on, used to meet, make a cancus," &c. From the fact that the meetings were first held in a part of Boston "where all the shipbusiness was carried on," Mr. Pickering inferred that onuces might be a corruption of coulkers, the word meeting being understood. Mr. Pickering was afterwards informed that several gentlemen had mentioned this as the origin of the word. He thinks he has sometimes heard the expression a cancus meeting (caulkers' meeting). Mr. Pickering says that this cant word and its derivatives are never used in good writing. We must add, however, that all the newspapers of the U. States use II.

CALLAINCOLRT. (See Vicenza.) CACDINE FORKS. (See Arellino.)

CAULKING, or CAUKING, of a ship, consists in driving a quantity of oakum, or old ropes untwisted and drawn asunder, into the seams of the planks, or into the intervals where the planks are joined together, in the ship's decks or sides, in order to prevent the entrance of water. frontiers, but escaped to the Hague, where "After the oakum is driven very hard into these seams, it is covered with hot melted pitch or resm, to keep the water from rotting it. Among the ancients, the first who made use of caulking were the inhabitants of Phoneia, now Corfu. Wai and resucappear to have been commonly used previously to that period. Poles use a sort of unctuous clay for the

same purpose on their navigable rivers.

Lateric. The name of caustic (Lateraticus, from Gr. 1910). Lhurn) is given to substances, which, by their chemical action, disorganize the parts of the body with which they are put in contact. They are called, likewise, potential cauterics, to distinguish them from the fire called actual cautery. Caustics, in general, act by decomposing chemically the tissues to which they are applied, by depriving them of life, and producing a real local and circumscribed gangrene, called eschar, or slough. Those, the action of which is powerful,—for instance, caustic potassa, concentrated sulphure acid, &c., -produce these phenomena with such rapidity, that inflammation takes place only after the formation of the ischer; whilst, on the contrary, inflammation is

the immediate consequence of the less energetic caustics. In both cases, supnuration occurs sooner or later, and separates the disorganized from the surrounding parts. Almost all the substances used as caustics have only a local action: some, however, are capable of being absorbed, and of exercising a deleterious action on the economy in general: arsenical proparations are an instance of it. The employment of caustics is now confined to a small number of cases. The actual cautery and the knife are, in general, preferred to them. They are used principally in order to establish issues, particularly in cases in which it is necessary to produce a powerful derivation; to stop the progress of certain gangrenous uffections, such as anthrux: to open certain indolent abscesses; to change the mode of vitality of the skin in some cancerous or herpetic aleers; to destroy the excrescences of wounds or proud flesh; and, finally, to prevent the absorption of the virus deposited at the surface of poiseared wounds.

CAUSTIC POTASSA (potassa fusa; lopis rausticus; impure hydrate of protoxyde of potassum; catistic kall with mic; common caustic. This is seen in that, aregular, brittle pieces, or in round sticks, like the intrate of wheer; of a grayish white, sometimes reddish: of a siver extremely caustic, and a -light odor suigeneris. This substance is extremely caustic: it decomposes quickly the parts with which it is put in contact, and leaves on the skin a soft, gravish eschar, which comes off slowly. Taken internally, it acts in the same way as all corrosive persons: it has, nevertheless, been whimistered, in very ddute solutions, as an antacid, durretic, and hthoutruptic. At has succeeded in the gravel, in nephritic colics, and other affections proceeding from superalaundaffer of une acid. It has been recommended, likewise, in the treatment of scrolida, and in some the area of the skin, such es leprosy, &c. The solution, even when very diluted, soon irritates the stomach, and brings on anorexia, which prevents it from being used for any length of time.

CAUSTIC Sona (soda); protoxyde of sodnum. Its physical properties are similar to those of pousse, and it may be used with advantage as a succedancium when employed as a caustic. In fact, the sub-carbonate, which forms during its action on the skin, is not deliquescent, as that of potas-a, and, consequently, is not subject to spread.

1

CAVALCANTI, Guido; a Florentine philosopher and post of the 13th century, the friend of Dante, and, like him, a zeal-When the dissensions. ous Ghibulline. of the Guelfs and Ghibellines disturbed the public peace of Florence, the cirizens banished the chiefs of both parties. The Ghibellines were exiled to Sarzana. On account of the unhealthy air of that place, they were permitted to return; but Cavalcanti had contracted a discuse of which he died (1900) at Florence. In his youth, he made a pilgrimage to St. Jugo de Compostella in Galicia. Returning home through France, he fell in love, at Tonlouse, with a young lady of the name of Mandetta. To her most of his verses which we possess are addressed. They are remarkable, considering the period at which they were written, for their beautiful style. His Canzone d'elmore has gamed him the most fame. The learned cardinal Egidio Colorina and some others, have made commenceries on it. His Rines, published by Ciecaporel, approved at Florence in 1813.

Cavarara, no fortification, is a work generally raised within the body of the place. (for 12 feet lagier than the rest of the works. As a most commonly satural. within the bastion, and node nowle in the same form. Sometimes the envalues are placed in the gornes, or en the naddle of the ention; the tare they made in the form of a borse shoe. Their use is to command all the edjacent works and surrounding country. They are seldom made except when a n-mg ground over-Tooks some of the workso he medern times, it is considered that carabers in a bustion occupy too much room, recoler reconcliments impossible, and, unless a duch reparates the cavilier from the parapet of the bascion, cause the grenades to fall upon the defenders of the latter; for which rea ons it is considered best to put them on the curtains or behind the basions.

CAVALAY; one of the three great classes of troops, and a formulable power in the lends of a leader who knows how to employ it with effect. This requires a bold and active spirit, able to avuil itself, with quickness and decision, of every opportunity. The efficiery of cavalry arises particularly from the moral impression which it produces on the enemy. This is greater in proportion to this size of the mass and the rapidity of its motion. Its adaptation to speedy movements is another great advantage, which enables a community to avail himself immediately of a decisive moment, when the enemy

exposes a weak point, or when disorder. The Persons caseling, and at a point papears in his ranks. It is a very important instrument in completing the defect numerous. The Rochints heard the near of an enemy, is disconnecting him by a sudden attack, or overthrowing him by a name period, the matching inside. At a later period, the matching inside. At was particularly good, in the matching in the true, oftending limited by the nature of the ground. In forests, in monnecting distributions of the forests in monnecting distributions of the forests and provided the period housest regular applies that is is true, oftentines limited by the usture of the ground. In forests, in mountainous districts, on a marshy soil, &c., it is of but little avail in large bodies. In modern times, cavalry has been led against intreachments, but only to its own destruction. In some justances, too, " the cavalry has been dismounted, and caployed as infantry; which may, on tavos Adolphus first perceived the impor-peculiar occasions, be advisable, but, on tant use which could be made of it. He the whole, is contrary to dieir nuture and purpose, and, if made a part of their duty, like other half measures, is usually disadvantageous. It is also unadvisable to keep large bodies of cavalry united during a campaign. They are to be collected in large masses only for particular objects. To keep them together the whole time would be troublesome, and their mainremarce frequently attended with diffi--ulty.-The unequal size of the horse, the very great diversity in his strength and breed, have at all times rendered it necessary to divide the cavalry into light and heavy horse. There is sometimes, also, an intermediate class. These dif-ferent sorts are employed for different purposes. The heavy cavalry, with defend sive armor (culrussiers), is more frequently employed in mass, where force is requisite: the lighter troops are used singly, and in small detachments, where swiftness and continued affort are required. Nevertheless, cuirassiers and dragoons, lancers and linsears, mounted riflemen and cheraux legers, must, in the main points, be equally exercised in the duties appertaining to cavelry, and must be able to light in the lim as well as singly. The use of cavalry is probably nearly as ancient as war itself; for in those countries where horses thrive most, and man The Egyptians are said to have had cavalry before the time of Moses. Israelites, when at war with their neighbors, often had to encounter cavalry, but were afraid to mount horses until the The Greeks appear time of Solomon. not to have introduced cavalry into their armies till the second Mossenian war, and, even after that time, had compared tively few; but with them it was considered the most respectable class of troops, n which only the wealthy citizens served.

this period, however, regular marker was unknown, and was only gradually re-stored in the progress of time. After the introduction of artillery, although cavelty. was used, yet its manœuvres were switward and inefficient. The genius of Guswas without the heavy cavalry, which, since the time of chivalry, had gone out of use; but he found that the advantage of this species of troops did not consist in its weight, but in its quickness of motion. With reference to this, he formed his regiments of horse, and showed their real mility: but it was lest to Seidlitz; a general of Frederic the Great, to display this most fully. Napoleon appears to have been well aware of the great value of carairy in large masses, but he often sacrificed them unsparingly. This, together with certain crompous dispositions which had crept into some armies, and had caused the cavalry to fail in services on which they ought never to have been put, ; and which were sometimes performed as well or better by other troops, gave rise, of late years, to doubts concerning their mility, which, however, are now alandoned. The writings of general Bismark, on the subject of cavalry, are valuable; as are also the Nachrichten und Betrachtungen über die Thaten und Schicksals der Reiterei in den Feldzügen Friederich II und In denen neuerer Zeit (Stutemseuts und Observations respecting the Conduct and Fate of the Cavalry in the Campaigns of Frederic II and in those of a later Period). In the north of Europe, lances are now consider alloug the light cavalry, as may be said to live on horseback, he have they have proved a formidable weapon always preferred to fight on horseback. When skilfully used. They will, no doubt, effect a change in the arms, and even hi the organization, of the infantry, who can do little against lancers, if rain prevents them from firing. In the Prussian cavalry, which is among the finest in the world, lancers are very numerous. A French author calls the cavalry, very appropriately, Parme du moment : because they are peculiarly fitted to take advan-tage of decisive moments. A moment, may occur, when a great victory can be decided by the audien irreption of a body

Mich shrinks not from responsibility. Many battles in the late wars prove the the whole of Spain. Thunberg has namerath of these remarks. Napoleou won ed a family of plants Cavanilla. Cavanilwhe battle of Marengo chiefly by Kellermann's daring charge, at the head of 500 horse, on an enemy almost sure of vicd tory. The campaigns in Russia, and the \* following war in Germany, showed the great disadvantage under which an army labors from the want of cavalry. Napo-, lean failed to follow up his advantages after the victories of Lützen and Dresden. chiefly because his cavalry were raw and inexperienced. The training of cavalry is much slower than that of infantry. "The best cavalry is now generally consid-" ered to be the Prussian and some species of the Russian. The French never were good horsemen, and the English have not kept pace with the numerous improvenients introduced by the wars on the continent. It is a fact of interest, that the more civilization takes root among a nation, the more importance is given to infantry. All savage nations begin with cavalry, if they have horses. At present, infantry is the most numerous class of "troops, though, before the time of Charles V, they were little esteemed.

CAVANILLES, Antonio Joseph; a clergyman and botanist; born 1745, at Valencia; died in Madrid, 1801; studied with the Jesuits and at the university of Valen-In 1777, he went to Paris with the children of the duke of Infantado, and remained there 12 years, occupied with the study of several sciences, but chiefly with botairy. He published there, in 1784, Observations on the Article Spain in the New Encyclopedia, written with as burch patriotism as proband reasoning. In the following year, he connuenced his graff hotanical work, Manadelphia Classis Disseriationes decase (Paris 17e5-eb) Ma-drid, 1710, 4to., with engravings). After his return to Spain, he wrote another heautiful work, lomes et Descriptiones Plantarum, qua ant Sponte in Hispania prescunt aut in Hortis hospitantur (Mng-drid. 1791-99, 6 vols., folio, with 601 engravings). It contains a number of new genera and species, natives of Spain, amorica, India and New Holland. In remainance of a commission from the king, Wavanilles travelled in Valencia, and collocald the materials for his Observaciones , sobre la Historia Natural, Geografia, Agricalimes, Poblacion, etc., del Reyno de Valencia (Modrid, 1795-97, 2 vols., folia,

of savairy, and the next moment it may be with copperplates, from the drawings of tas late. A commander of cavalry must the author. The work was published at the expense of the king, and intended as the expense of the king, and intended as the first part of a similar work to embrace les died in 1604.

CAVATINA; a short nir without a roturn or second part, and which is sometimes

relieved with recitative.

CAVE, or GROTTO; an opening produred by nature in the solid crust of the earth. Caves are principally met with in limestone of the transition and flotz period, in gypeun, sometimes in sandstone, and in volcanie rocks (basult, lava, tufi., &c.); sunctimes they are the effect of crystallization. The form of the cuves depends partly upon the mature of the substance in which they exist; but it is frequently altered by external causes. reference to their internal construction. the hollows in the earth may be divided into three classes; those of the first are wide clefts; those of the second admet the day-light at both ends, and form nat ural passages, which sometimes serve the rivers as lods; the third and most common class consists of those which form a line of grottoes, about of an equal height running in the same direction, and connected by passages more or less narroy. Out of some grattoes, rivers take their (course; others, again, admit rivers, or may be said to swallow them for a space, till they again coverge. There are many and various causes for the formation of caves These in line some and gypsim are in questionably the results of the dissolving power of water; in fact, the almost per feetly uniform direction, the gentle and equable declivity of most caves, appear to be the effect of the long continuance of water in them, the action of which hewidehed the existing crevices. In tracky: and lava, cases appear to have been produced by the effects of gas. The cave's of gypsum often contain foul air; the caver of linestone, various figures of stalactites, produced by the deposit of the lime disolved in the water. The mosof these lime caves contain remaints of bones of animals, viz., of hyernas, cle-phants, bears. Many caves are remarkable only on account of their great size. or subline from the awful gloom which pervades them, and the colors which roll like thunder through their vaulted pasrages. Some are of great depth, as that of Frederichall, in Norway, which is calculated to be 11,000 feet in depth. One of the grandest natural caverns known is

Fingal's cave, in Staffs, one of the Western in France are total purposes and effor-islands of Scotland. Its sales are formed sive, and should in objects of curiosity, of ranges of basakin columns, which are In South America is the capture of Gua-almost as regular as hown stone. The chara, which is said to obtain for leagues. grotto of Antiperes, on the island of the same name, in the Archipelago, is cele-brated for its magnificance. The passage at the entrance glitters, in the torch-light, us if it were studded with diamonds. The roof is adorned with stalactites, many of them 20 feet long, and hung with festoque of various forms and brilliant appearance. In some parts, immense columns descend to the floor; others present the appearauco of trees and brooks turned to marble. The Peak cavern, in Dorbyshire, England, is also a celebrated curiosity of this kind. It is nearly half a mule in length, and, at is lowest part, 600 feet below the surface. The caves of Kirkdale, in England, and Gailenreuth, in Germany, are remarkable in the quantities of bones of the elephant, binoceres and hyana, found in them, The mine of fluor spar, in Castleton, Derbyshire, passes through several stalacte caverns. Other caverus in England ontain subterraneous cascades. ock of Gibraltar, there are a number of -telactic caverns, of which the principal is St. Michael's cave, 1000 feet above the The most famous caves in Germany are those of Baumann and Bielstein, in (See Buckland's Reliquice Landon, 1823.) The most he Hartz. Diluriana, London, 1823.) elebrated caves in the U. States are Madson's cave, in Rockingham county, Virginia, extending 300 feet into the carth. and adorned with beautiful incrustations of stableties; Wier's cave, in the seme pounty, extending 800 yards, but extremey irregular in its course and size. Corydon, Indiana, is a cave, which has been explored for the distance of several miles, celebrated for producing Epsons salts. In Kontucky and Tennessee, caves are munerous, which appear to have been . isod as burial-places. In the north-west part of Georgia is a cave, called Nickojock are, 50 feet high and 100 wide, which has been explored to the distance of three miles. A stream of considerable size runs brough it, which is interrupted by a fall. Caves are sometimes found which exhale poisonous vapors. The most remarkable known is the Grotto del Cane, a small cave near Naples. In Iceland, there are many caves, formed by the lava from its volcanoes. In the volcanic country near Rome. there are many natural cavities of great extent and coolness, which are sometimes resorted to as a refuge from the heat. The grottoes in the Covennes mountains , into York. Having been relieved by

Cave, Edward, an English printer; the founder of the Gentleman's Magazine, was born in 1691. The first occupation was that of clerk to a collector of the crcise in the commy. He then went to a London, and put himself apprentice to a printer. When his indenture expired, he obtained a place in the post-office, and employed his leisure in writing for the news-papers. He published, in January, 1781, the first number of the Gentleman's Magazine, which has continued till this day. amid the crowd of nuguzines which have been established since. Cave was deprived of his place in the post-office on norelative to the privilege of franking letters, He died Japuary 10, 1754.

CAVENDISH, Thomas; an eminent nexigntor in the reign of Elizabeth. Having consumed his property by his early extravagances, he collected three small vessels for the purpose of making a predatory voyage to the Spanish colonics. He sailed from Plymouth in 1586, took and destroved many vessels, ravaged fre coasts of Chile, Poru and New Spain, and teturned by the cape of Good Hope, having circuminvigated the globe in 2 y ars and 49 days, the shortest period in which it had then been effected. In 1591, he set sail on a similar expedition, in which his principal underes was the capture of the town of Santos, in Brazil. After suffering

many hardships, he died, in 1592. Cavernasa, William, duke of Neweastle, was born in 1552, and educated by his father, on whose death he was raised. to the poerage. On the approach of hostilities between the crown and parliament, he embraced the royal cause, and was invested with a commission, constituting him general of all his majesty's forces raised until of the Trent, with very ample powers. With great exertions, and the expenditure of large sums from his private fortune, he levied a considerable army, with which, for some time, he maintained the king's cause in the north. In military matters, he depended chiefly on his principal officers, whilst he himself indulged in the courtly pleasures and literary soriety to which he was attached. He obtained a complete victory over lord Fairfax on Adderton-heath, and, on the approach of the Scotch army, and its junction with the parliamentary forces, threw himself,

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prince Rupert, he was present at the dutthe of Murston-moor, after which he left the kingdom. He returned, after an absence of 18 years, and was rewarded for This services and sufferings with the dignity of duke. He died in 1670.

CAVENDISE, William, first duke of Detonshire, was the son of William, third · corl of Devonshire. He was born in 1640, and instructed with great care in classical literature. On various occasions, he distinguished bimed' by his spirit and valor. and, in 1677, began that opposition to the arbitrary measures of the ministers of Charles II, which caused him to be regarded as one of the most deternamed friends of the liberties of his country. Inunately connected with lord Russel, he joined han in his efforts for the security of free government and the Protestant relignou. On the trad of lord Russel, he appeared as a witness in his favor, and offered to assist him an escaping, after he had been sentenced to death, by changing clothes with him in prison. In 1671, doving succeeded to his father's title, and being regarded as one of the most formalable opponents of the arbitrary designs of king James II. attempts were made to in tunidate him, but without success. Having been instated by a monon of the king, he dragged him from the champer by the now in the royal presence. The tool ma netive part in promoting the revolution, and was one of the first who declared for the prince of Change. His services were reworded writtle degree of licke of Devon-lare. He still, however, maintained or independent bearing on padamora. He dud in 1707.

CAVENDISH, Henry, born 1731, the son of ford Charles Caverdish, and grandson of the second duke of Devorsime, devoted himself exclusively to the sciences, and learned man who have most contributed to the progress of chemistry. He discovand the peculiar property coloringen. and the qualities by which it is distanguished from amosphere au. To him we owe the important discovery of the reasonation of water. Schoole land alroady observed that, when oxygen is muxed with double the quancity of hydrogen, this mature barns with an explosion, without any visible residunta-Cave nebsh repeated this experiment with the securacy for which he was distinguished. He confined both the gases in diy earthen vessels, to prevent the escape of the produrt of their combustion, and found that this residuum was water, the weight of

which was equal to the sum of the weights of the two games. Lavoisier confirmed this conclusion in later times. The same spirit of accuracy in his experiments led Carondish to unother discovery, which hul escaped Priestley. The latter had observed that a quantity of armospheric air, confined in a time, through which the electric spark was transmitted, lost, in volume, and formed an scid, which reddened the fineture of lanes; but he curried this experiment no farther. Cavendish repeated the experiment, by confining in the tube a solution of pure petash, a bich alsorbed the acid, and thus proved it to be nitric acid. The analysis of the air, whigh remained in the tube after the experiment, showed that the weight of the oxygen and azote, which had disappeared, was equal to the weight of the and thus tormed. He easily determined, the proportion of the azote to the oxygen, which y as 2:3. It was found, also, that, when both goes, sufficiently pure, were mixed In that proportion, and exposed to the elective spark, the mixture disappeared entirely, by which his discovery was conpletely confirmed. Cavendish distingues! ed Imaself no less in maural philosophy. by the accuracy of his experiments. present danks, a profound knowledge of the lagher getacetry, of which he made a very happy the in the redicant the mendensity of the cartie. He found is to be 54 times prester than the density of water -- a compusion which dollers but little from that element in Maskelone in ar other way. He was a member of the royal society or Laurion, and, in ISBL was made one of the eight foreign pembers of the matoual institute of Trance. Cavet. dish was probably the richest among the learned, and the most learned among the rich, men of his time. An uncle left have acquired a distinguished rank among those a large fortune in 1773. It his increase of wealth made ro change in his characte: and habits. Universely regular and simple in his manner of living, he was liberal in encouraging science, and in his private charities. His large, well-chosen library was open for the use of learned mee. He thed in Landon, March, 1810, and lot £1.200,000 sterling to his relations. His writings consist of treatises in the Philosophical Transactions, from 1766 to 1792 They are distinguished by acuteness and accuracy.

Covere (ickers) is made in Russia from the role of sturgeons, belugas, and many other fish. The roe is separated from the skin which encloses it, salted, and, after eight days, pepper and finely

minced onions are added. It is then dried, and serves as a relisher with tousted bread or Bread and butter. The best cayiare is that from the Crimoa. From Kerch and Jenikale, in that province, 1500 harrels are annually experted to Moldavia and the countries on the Danube.

(JAXAMARCA, OF QUARAMARKA: & PROVince of Peru, bounded N. by Jacu, E. by Chacapoyas, S. E. by Caxamarquilla, S. by Huannachuco, W. by Sana and Trux-No; population, 46,000. The country is generally mountainous. It abounds in fruits and cattle. The inhabitants are, for the

most part, Indians, and chiefly weavers.

Curamarca; a town of Peru, capital if a province of the same name; about 70 miles from the Pacific ocean, 280 N. Lima; at. 7 3 S.; Ion. 78 35 W.; population, 12.000. It was, at one time, a royal city, where the emperor Ataliaalpa was put to death, after having been defeated and me-

presented by Pizarro.

Carron, William; an Englishman. op morable for having first introduced the set of printing into his native country. He was born in Kent, about 1410, and served arapprentice-hip to Robert Large, a Lonion mercer. On the death of he master, Caxon went to the Netherlands, as agent or the mercers' company, in which sturcombe continued about Livears. His repstation for probity and abilities occasionof his being employed, in contain from with Richard Whitehill, to conclude a treaty of commerce between Edward IV and Philip duke of Burguidy. He appears subsequently to have held some office in the jousehold of duke Charles, the son of Salo, whose wife, the July Margaret of York, distinguished herself as the patroness of Caxton. Whilst abroad, he became requarated with the then newly discovered accention of printing. (See Faust, John.), sains about 200 houses. Lat. 4 50 N., At the request of the ducliess, his mistress, lon. 52 16 W. . Se translated from the French a work, which he cuttled the Recayell of the Hisverges of Trage, by Round le Frare, which be printed at Cologne, 1474, in folio. This look, considered as the carbest specimen if typography in the English language, is steermed very valuable. At the famous ·ale of the duke of Roxburgh's library, in 1812, a copy was purchased by the duke of Decombine, for £1000 10s. After this. he printed other works alroad, chiefly translations from the French; and, at length, baving provided himself with the means of practising the art in England, he returned thither, and, in 1174, had a press at Wesmanster abbey, where he printed the Game and Playe of the Chesse, gen-

erally admitted to be the first typographyical work executed in England. Caston continued to exercise his art for nearly 20years, during which time he produced between 50 and 60 volumes, most of which were composed or translated by himself. Cuxton died about 1492, and was buried. according to some accounts, at Campdon, in Gloucestershire; though others state his interment as having taken, place at, St. Margaret's, Westminster.

CAYENNE, OF FRENCH GUIANA; a province or colony in South America, belonging to France; bounded N. and N. E. by the Atlantic ocean, E. and S. by Brazil. and W. by Dutch Guiana; between lat. 1° 50' and 6° N.; population, 17,331, of which only about 1000 are whites. Thus country was first colonized by the French in 1615; in 1654, it was taken by the Englich, and, in 1676, by the Dutch; but, in 1677, it was restored to the country is generally low, soil, in many parts, is very fertile, though in others dry, sandy, and soon exhausted... The climate resembles that of the West Indies, though it is more salubrious. The most noted article of produce is Cayenne pepper, the fruit of the capsicum baccalum. Celler productions are coffee, sugar, cotton, cocon, indigo, maize, cassia and v. ulla.

Cayenne: an island of South America. belonging to France, on the coast of the above province, separated from the main hand by the river Cayenne, which is about 300 miles in length. The island is 18 miles long and 10 broad, and has a fertile will

Cayenne; a town of South America, on the north point of the above island, at the mouth of the over Cayenne. It is the capital of the French colony of Cayenne, had a large and convenient port, and con-

CATENNE PEPPER, or CAPSICEM. | Capsicum vertices and of several species of Fouth American and Indian plants, easily known by their hollow pods, of a shining red or yellow color, which contain many small, flat and kidney-shaped seeds. The principal species are, heart or hell-pepper (capsicum grossum), Gunea pepper (capsieum annaum) and bird-popper (capsi sieum bacentum). All the species of capsicum possess the same general qualities. In hot chinates, but particularly in the East and West Indies, and some parts of Spanish America, the fruit of these plants is much used for enhany-purposes. It is eaten in large quantities, both with annual and vegetable food, and is mixed,

in greater or less proportion, with almost all kinds of sauces. The Cayenna pepper used in cookery is made from the limit of different species of capsicum. This of different species or capseum.

fruit, when ripe, is gathered, dried in the
fean, and then pounded; and the powder is mixed with a certain portion of salt, and . Acpt for use in closely-stopped bottles. It is very generally used as a poignant ingre-"fight in soups and highly-sensoned dishes. . Its taste is extremely acrid, and it leaves a durable sensation of heat on the palate. is a grateful stimulant; and, in medicine, a is used both externally and internally, to promote the action of the bodily organs, when languid and torpid; and it is said to , have been found efficacious in many gonty and paralytic cases. The Guinea pepper, or annual capsicum, is considered the most bardy of this whole tribe of plants; and, in many parts of the south of Purope, as fruit is cuten green by the persants at their \* invaktasts, and is preferred by them to on ions or garlie. The fruit of all the species may be used in done-sic economy, either as a pickle, or when dried before a tire, and ground to powder in a common pepper mill, as Cayenne pepper (See Capsicia.)

CATES, LES, or ATY CAPEL IN SERPORT town on the south coast of Hayte; 30 miles S. S. E. Port-au-Prince, lat 15 13 N., lon. 74 31 W. This i was a few years esince, contained 12 or 15,000 enhabitants. his now very nucli reduced. The lanbor is inferior, but the surrounding country is

fertile.

Caracs (Anne Claude Ptelippe de Tubieres, &c.), count of, an archeologist, born Oct. 31, 1642, at Paris, received an oducation equally solid and spiendid. \*After having served in the army during the war of the Spanish succession, he left the other asistance of Dom Chasis, an Arabian service in 1715, accompanied Bonns on his embassy to Constantanople the following year, and visited Greece Great, Ephesus, Byzantium and Adrianople. In 1717, the returned to Paris, according to the wish of his mether, and began here to arrange his extensive collections. He commenced a great work on Egyptian, Greeian, Etruscan, Roman and Gallie antiquities, with mimercus plates. He was a member of the readerty of pairting and of the newlcany of inscriptions, and divided his labors between them. He made a themical examination of the ancient method of enomistic painting, investigated the mode of mining on marble, the set of hardening coppler, the more by which the Egyptions raised great weights, the manumics, paint-

ing on wax, and many other subjects. If he has sometimes misunderstood the ancient authors, and committed some errors with respect to ancient monuments, he has, nevertheless, treated with great success of the projectors and materials employed in the arm by the ancients. He died in 1765. Integrity, simplicity and disinterestedness were united in his character with occasional traits of dogmatism. He has left numerous works, take as well as antiquorian researches. Among the latter is his which as best removed by butter or oil. Recueil d'Intiquites Egyptiennes. &c When taken in small quantities, Cayonne (Paris, 1752-67, 7 vols.). Caylus was is a grateful stimulant; and, in medicine, also an industrious and skilful engraver, and has furnished a collection of more than 200 engravings, after drawings in the royal cabinet, and a great number of heads, after the first masters. His mother, niece of Mad. de Mainteron, made berself known by a spirited little work—Afes Sourenies

CARMAN. (See Alligator.) Cazover, Jacques, an author, dismgurded by facility and hydiness of style, from in 1720, at Thion, studied with the Jesuits, and went, in 1747, to Martinico, On his return to France, he lost \$50,000 in letters of exchange upon the order of the Jesuits, to whose superior, Lavalette he had sold his possessions in Martinica. The law-uit which he commisseed, or this ovension, may be considered as the beginning of all the proceedings against the Jestits in France. Cazotte shone as society among the beaux esprits. His rorames of charles. Officer, published in 1763, and, sulpermently, as Diable annarear, the Land Imprompto, and Charges morales it budges, are proof of his rel incignation, and he takent for writing was ease and precising. Being received into the order of Merimes de Pasqualis, Cazotte not himselt in cabalistic decause. Walmenk, he translated four volumes of Ara bon Tales—a continuation of the Arabian Nights, forming the : 5th and 40th volumes of the Cabinet des Pers. Though at the age of 70 years, he wrote them at midnight, after his return from the circles in which he had been visiting. Chavis dictated the outlines, and Cazotte wrought up the sterips. He completed the task in two win The comic opera Les Sabols he ters. composed in one night. In the revolution, which he opposed with all his power, he was thrown into the prisons of the Abbaye, with his daughter Elizabeth, in 1792. When the massers of the prisoners took place. Sept. 2 and 3, Cazotte being delivered into the hands of the assassins, his daughter cust herself between him

and the unirderers, and prevented the execution of their purpose i but he was again condemned to death, and executed Sept. 25. From the scaffold he cried with a firm voice to the multitude, "I die, as I have lived, faithful to God and to my king."

Cazwini, Zacheria Ben Mohammed. un Arabian naturalist, descended from a family of lawyers, who derived their ongin from Anas Ben Malek, a companion of Mohammed; and had settled in Uniwm, a. city in Persia. From that place this author received the surname under which constances of his life, we know only that he nes cadi of Waznh and Hillah, and died in the year of the hegira 652 (A. D. 1253). His most important work is on natural history—The Wonders of Nature and the Peculiarities of Creation-of which ldeler, professor in the university of Berlin, has published the chapter on the Courellations of the Arabians, and of which there are fragments in Bochart's Hierotokan, in Ouseley's Oriental Collections, and in Walif's, Jalin's and De Sacy's Arob. Chreshmathias. It was the object of Cazwan, like Plany, to describe the wonders of all nature. His work communs a comprehensive view of all that had been written beforeding, but in so grand and origmul a manner, that it is of higher value than most of the original works which treat of the same subjects. There is an abridged translation of it in the Persian.

CERES of Thebes was a descule of Sorrares. He is said to have sever! Plucdon, a young slave, from moral rum. Nothing more is known of his life., Three dialogues - Hebdome. Phrynichus, and Pinax. or the Picture-are ascribed to han; but most critics regard the latter as the work of a later Colum, or of a Stoic philosopher under this assumed name. Since the revival of learning, this interesting dialogue. has been often reprinted by inself, or m connexion with the writings of Epictetus, Theognis, Pythagoras, &c. Among the larger editions is that of Schweighnuser Stroday g, 1806). There are many school editions.

Chern, William (bord Burkagh). This enought English statemen was son to Richard Coul, master of the robes to Henry VIII, and vas born at Bourne, in Lincolnshire, in 1520. He studied at St. John's college, Cambridge, whence he removed to Gray's Inn, with a view to prepare himself for the practice of the law. flaving carried on a successful controvermy with two Irish priests on the subject of the pope's supremacy, he obtained the no-

vice of the king; and, being presented, with the revenient of the office of custos. brevium, was encouraged to push his fin-tune at court. Having married the sister of air John Cheke, he was, by his brotherin-law, recommended to the earl of Hertford, afterwards the protector Someoner. Having lost his tirst wife, he took for a second the daughter of sir Authory Cooks, director of the studies of Edward VI; and; by his alliance with this larly, herself omiment for learning, still further increased his influence. He rose, in 1547, to the 🕏 he has become celebrated. Of the cir- post of master of requests, and, soon after, to that of secretary. He endured, in this reign, some of the variety, des which befell, his patron Fornerset, but always recovered his standing, and, in 1551, was knighted, and sworn a member of the privy council. His declining to and the proclamation of indy Jane Grey, secured him a gracious reception from queen Mary, although he forfeited his office because he would not change his religion. In 1555, he attended cardinal Pole and the other complesioners appointed to treat for peace with France: and, on his return, being chosen "knight of the shire for the county of Lincoln, distinguished hineelf by opposing a hill brought in for the confiscation of etraces on account of religious principles. He foresight led him into a timely correspondence with the princess Elizabeth. previously to her accession; to whom, is her critical simution, his advice was exceedingly serviceable. On her accession, in 1558, he was appointed pricy compactfor and secretary of state. One of the first note of her reign was the settlement of religion, which Ceed conducted with great skill and prudence, considering the difficulties to be encountered. In foreign adians, he showed much tact in guarding against the danger arising from the Catholic powers, and very indiciously lent support to the reformation in Scotland. The general two Cecil's policy was caumons, and rested upon an avoidance of open hostilities, and a reliance on secrenegotistion and intrigues with opposing parties in the neighboring countries, with n view to avert the dangers which threm-ened his own. This, upon the whole, waa course almost necessary, considering the situation of England, with a powerful, dissatisfied party at home, much dangerous empity on the part of Catholic Europe. and an alliance existing between Scotland and France. On the suppression of the northern rebellion, in 1571, Elizabeth raised him to the peerage by the turk of baron Burleigh, and, the following year,

unde him a knight of the garter. He is charged with being deeply engaged in fothe troubles which caused the .; flight of the improdent and unhappy Mary . Struct into England; and, after the discovery of Rabington's conspiracy, he never ceased urging her trial and condemnation. He endured, for a short time, the hypocritical resentment of Elizabeth at the exe, ecution of the queen of Scots, but, after a , while, recovered his former credit. At the time of the threatened Spanish invasion, he drew up the plan for the defence of the country with his usual care and ability. But, soon after, losing his wife, to whom he was warmly attached, in hecame desirous of retiring from public Insiness, and of leaving the field open to his son Robert, afterwards so celebrated as carl of Salisbury. He was persuaded, however, to keep his employment, and one of his latest efforts was to effectuate a peace with Spam, in opposition to the more heated councils of the earl of Fissex. This great minister died in the bosom of his family, and in the possession of all his honors, in 1595, being then in his 77th year. He left behind hun the character of the ablest numster of an able regu-How far the emergencies of the period ought to excuse a portion of his dark and crooked policy, it may be difficult to determine. But it is easy to decide, that almost every school of politicians, under smiler errounstances, have countenanced similar laxity under the plea of expedieney. The private character of Burkigh was highly regarded; for although he failed not to improve his opportunities as a courtier, he always exhibited a probity which concluted esteem. He possessed, in a high degree, the solid learning, grovits and decorum, which, in that age, w-ir ally accompanied elevated station. In his mode of living, howns noble and splendid, but, at the same time, economical, and uttentive to the formation de competent fortune for his family. He early occupation as a statesman precluded much attention to literature, but he is menuoned as the author of a lew Latin verses, and of some historical tracts. A great manier : of his letters on business are still extant.

Crem. Robert, cerl of Salisbury, second son of lord Burleigh, was born, seconding to some accounts, about the year 1550; but, his birth may, with more probability, be placed 13 years later. He was deformed, and of a weak constitution; on which account his was educated at home, till his control to the university of Candridge. Having received the honor of kinghthood,

he went to France as assistant to the English ambassador, the earl of Derby, and, in 1596, was appointed one of the secretarios of state. On the death of sec Francis Walsingham, he succeeded him as principal secretary, and continued to be a confidential minister of queen Elizaboth to the end of her reign. Having secretly supported the interests of Janes 1, previous to his accession to the crown, and taken measures to facilitate that event he was continued in office under the new sovereign, and raised to the peerage. In 1603, he was created a laren; in 1604. viscount Cranbourn; and in 1605, carl of Salishary. The same year he was chosen chancellor of the university of Cambridge, and made a knight of the garter. He was the political rather than the personal favorite of the king, whom he served wat zeal and fidelity; and, as he was certainly the ablest, so he was, perhaps, the most honest, minister who presided over the affairof state during that reign. In 1608, or the decease of the lord high treasurer the earl of Dorset, that office was bestowed o. lord Sahsbury, who held it till his death, in 1612. This event took place at Mar' borough, as he was returning to Londo: from Bath, whither he had gone in a very debilitated state of health, to use the nonwestern lere An interesting account of this journey, and of the last notes of this eniment statesman, drawn up by one or his domestics, may be found in Peck's Desiderate Cariosa. Lord Salisbury was the author of a Treatise against the Papists; and of Notes on Deep Discourse on the Reformation of the Calcuda, and some of his letters, desputches and speech es la perhament have been published.

Creatas. There are several same of this mane in the Catholic church. The most celebrated, who has been falsely re garded as the inventress of the organ, and who is the patron sain of music, is said to have suffered marryrdom A.D. 220. Her pagon parents, says the legent, betraface her, contrary to her wishes, to Valeran, a young pagan. But she had internally vowed to the Lord a perpetual virginity, and, whilst the instruments sounded, she sang in her heart only to the Lord (eacitantibus organis, illa in corde suo sol' Domino cantabat, dicens. & c.); that is, she prayed—O Lord, allow my lieurt and my body to remain unpolluted. As soon as the bridegroom appeared, she forbide hiapproach, essuring bun that an angel of the L and protected her innocence. The unbelieving Valerian wished to convince himself of this assertion; she referred here

arrang the tombs of the martyrs, and who instructed him in the Christian religion, and baptized him. When he returned to the bride, he saw the protecting angel, who presented them both with crowns of lunvenly roses and filies. Valerian now induced his brother Tubirtus to embrace the Christian faith. The Roman prefect Almuchius caused both brothers to be inheaded, as zealous professors of Chrismanity. Life was to be given to Cecilia if the would sacrifice to the heathen gods. that she remained firm in her behef. I'men this, the tyrant caused her to be shift up in a bath of boiling water, in which she was found, the day after, untourt. The executioner was then directed to behead her: he inflicted three blows. but was not able to separate the head from the body. She fived for three days, exhorting the faithful and giving alms to the poor. As early as the 5th century, we find a church in Rome dedicated to her. Pope Paschalis, who was very anxious to gather relies, endeavored to discover her body. She appeared to him, as he relates in his letters, while he was sleeping, and pointed out the place of her septicies. Paschale caused the body to be disinterred in 821, and placed it in the church thich be retails, where her monument is still to be seen. How Ceriba came to be the patron-sount of nursic is not agreed. The parious opinions, however, seem to in united in this point, that it was either through a pasuader-tanding, or through an allegeneal interpretation of the words above eped from her begond. Her worship, in this character, is very ancient. Among the poets, Chancer, Dryden in his Alexander's Peast, and Pope, have sung her parane "-. Raphael, Domenichmo, Dolce and Mighard have represented her in celeleated paintings. In the picture of Raphack she appears as the personitication of heavenly devotion. This is, indeed, heavenly picture.

there about 1550 B. C., from Sais, at the month of the Nile (this emigration, however, bus been our-stioned by some late writers, e. g. Officed Müller), taught the savage inhabitants religion and morals, made them acquainted with the advantages of social life, laid the foundation of the future city of Athens (Cecropia), and built II other places, whose inhabitants be instructed in agriculture. He also planted the olive, and consecrated it to Minerva, the parron goddess of Athens. He then introduced into his adopted

to the bishop Urban, who was concealed country the art of ship-building, and thus : laid the foundation of its consuperce. He died after a reign of 50 years. His monument was erected in the truple of Minerva; but, to preserve his memory always fresh in their minds, the people conseruted to him the constellution of . Aquarius. (See Attica.) The researches. which are making among the records of Egyptian history, since the key to their mysterious lauguage has been discovered by the skilfully directed efforts of Young. De Sucy, Zoega, Champollion, and others, will undoubtedly throw great light on the progress of civilization from Egypt to Greere, described in the half mythological, half historical tales of the latter country.

C'ECROPIA. (See Albens, vol. i. p. 442.) CEDAR; a nume given to several species of jumper, to a species of pine, the cedaof Labourn, and to the copressus thuyoides. It is an everyween, and of great durability. The most relebrated kind is the

Cedar-Level, or Cedar of Lebanon (pings redrue, L.), distinguished, by its strong, mmost branches, from all other trees of the same genus. The general quaracter of the shoot, even when the tree is young, is singularly bold and picturesque, and quite peculiar to the species The tree is a nato e of the coldest port of the noumains of Libenus, Amanus and Tourus; but it is not now to be found in those places in great numbers. Manualrell, in his journey trom Aleppo to Jerusalem, in 1696, could: recken only 16 large trees, though many small ones. The forest of Libanus seems miser to have recovered from the havor nude by Solomon's forty score thousand howers. Beautiful specimens of this noble tree are to be seen at Witton park. Zone tionse, &c., in England, where it seems to have been introduced in 1683, and where, as professor Martyo observes, there are panishly, at present, more cedars than in Palestine.

White Cedar jeupressus thuyoides) is a small or nild-he sized evergreen, naturally Cecnors, the founder of Athens, arrived a forming an elegant head. Its branches its leaves are of a are not pendulous. delicate green color. It is a native of North America, China and Cochin Clans. In the U. States, it occupies large tracts denominated cedar-snownys. The wood is soft, smooth, of an aromatic smell, and internally of a red color. It is permanent in shape, and very durable, and is estcemed as a material for fences. Large quantiteof slingles are made of it. It is a favorus material for wooden wares, or the new kinds of coopers' work.

Red or Common Cedar (juniperus Vis.

riminum); a native of North America and the West Indies. It is distinguished by its teaves, growing in threes, and being fixed by their base, the younger ones lying wupon each other, and the older ones spreading. The trunk is straight, and knotted by small branches. The heartwood is of a bright red, smooth, and moderately soft. This wood is in much request for the outsides of black-lead pencils. On account of its powerful fragrance, it is often used for the bottoms of drawers, because it resists the attacks of insects. Some years ago, it was in great esteem for wainscotting and cabinet-work, but has been much neglected since the introduction of mahogany. The name of savin is, in some places, unproperly applied to this tree. Unlike the white codar, it grows in the driest and most burren soils. For posts of buildings, it is much in request; but it is difficult to obtain it of large 6i2e.

> Celalonia. (See Cephalmia.) Celano. (See Harpies.)

\*Celles; an island in the East Indian sea, of an irregular shape, about 500 milelong, and about 200 broad, called, by the natives and Malays. Negree Oran Buggess, and, sometimes, Tanna Macassar; square miles, about 90,000. It is divided into sec states or kingdoms, viz., Gon, Bony, Wajoo, Sopin, Schndrin and Mandar. Goa extends a considerable way along the west and south, and contains, besides Macassar, two Dutch forts. Bontyn and Rulo Cumba. The government is mountchical, and the king is called karvang, and, sometimes, rajah Goa.-Bony, or Pony, is E. of Goa, entirely under the influence of the Dutch. and is governed by a prince, radied pajong, who is elected for life by seven orancouss, or nobles. - Wajoo, or Warjoo, or Tubeljoo, is situated N. of Bony, and is governed by a prince flected for life by the orangages. Sopin is situated in the centre of the island. towards the eastern side, to the 15. of Box. -Selindrin is of small consideration, and is N. W. of Sopin. - Mandar her on the W. and N. W coust. The inhabitants are Mohammedans...-The heat of this island would be excessive if it were not moder-The trees are ated by abundant rains. always green; fruit and flowers grow in all seasons; jasmines, roses, carnations, and other beautiful flowers, grow without cul-I ture; orange-trees and citions shade the ground, with mangoes, banones, and other finits. Cotton-trocs cover the extensive per. The mhabitants raise a great number of cattle: the oxen are larger than those

of Europe. In the forests are large heads of deer, wild hogs, and a great variety of monkeys, large and ferocious; some with tails, and some without; some walking upon four legs, others upon two. The principal articles which the Dutch obtain from this island are rice, gold, ivory, deals and sandal wood; cotton, camphor, ginger, long pepper and pearls. The Dutch are said to have had 370 towns and villages under their control. Their principal settlement is at Macassar, Lat. 2° N. to 3° 40° S.; lon. 118° 40° to 124° 15′ F.

CELESTINE. Two popes of this name are saints. The first was elected paper Nov. 3. 422, and followed Boniface t. There is a decretal letter of this pape extant, directed to the bishops of Vienna and Nurbonne, prohibiting the bishop from wearing a dress distinguishing them from the people, and forbidding the choice of strangers for bishops, to the displeasure of their flocks. The consent of the Deciple, of the elergy, and of the magistrate, he says, as necessary to a choice. He died April 6, 432. His letters are preserved in the collection of D. Constate, folio, and in the collection of the count, is —Celestine V was also a saint. He was chosen pope July 5, 1294, before which time he was called Peter of Murrham He lived as a hermit on Montelli Mag-da. in continual fisting and permice, and was count of his ofter ignorance of husiness and of the world. He nextr would have been chosen, had not the papal chan beer vicant for \$7 months, or account or the chromals being divided intostwo parties. When Celestine entered Aquila, he role on an a-, led by two kings. He want found the burden of business too heavy, and abdicated his dignity Dec. 13, 1294 Bomber VIII succeeded hun, and kept lâm prisoner till his death. May 19, 1296 The greatest simplicity marks the govern ment of this pope. He is the founder of the Celestines. (q. v.) Curestases (from their founder, paper

Che extres (from their knuder, paper Colestine V. q. v.), the hermits of St. Rimian, a religion, order, instituted about the mian, a religion, order, instituted about the middle of the 18th century, in Italy, followed the rule of St. Benedict (q. v.), ware white garments with black capes and scapularies, and were devoted entirely to a contemplative fife. In the beginning of the 18th century, the order was diminished to the number of 96 monasteries in Italy, and 21 in France. This society of gloomy monks appears recently to have become still smaller. In France, it no longer ex-

INTA.

CELIBACY [written by a Catholic]. One of the sublime ideas of the Catholic church is its veneration of chastity. This places ('hristianity in the most striking opposition to the seasonl religious of the pagan world. Whilst the pagaus lowered their gode to the human standard, Christianity described men's views to beaven, and idealused human nature. St. Paul (I Cor. 7) reconmends virginity, without condemning matrimony. The Catholic church respects matrimonial chastity, but esterns virginity a tugher virtue, as a sacrifice of the pleusares of this life to purity of soul, as the victors of the moral nature over the physical. With these subline views of this sirtue, it is not wonderful that it was rejured of the priests, who officiate in the high mystery of the eucharist. From the ome of the apostles, it became a custom u the church for bishops, priests and deaons to renounce the joys of matrimonial love at their consecration, and to devote 'nemselves entirely to the duties of their office. One point only was disputed, whether elergymen were to be merely prohibited from marrying, or whether even more who were married before their consecretion, should be required to separate menselves from their wives. At the gencollectment of Nice, several bishops proposed that the bishops, priests and deacons, are had received the holy consecration, round be directed, by an express ordisame, to give up their wives. But Paplisatus, bishop of Upper Thebais, contendof that cohabitation with a write was a state of chastny. It was sufficient, he said, according to the increat traditions of the cuerch that elergymen should not be peroutred to marry; but he who had been married before his consecration ought by no means to be separated from his lawful wife. As it became the general opinion, that a clergy man could not marry, it soon became the general practice to retuse cone-cation to married ruen. By this means, amformity was effected. As for the bishcore. After the institution of monachism had become firmly established, and the monks were regarded with veneration, on account of their you of perpetual chastity, onblic opinion exacted from the secular elergy the same observance of celibacy. The holy father Emphanius assures us that, by the ecclesia-tical laws, celibacy was commanded, and that, wherever this continued was neglected, it wis a corruption of the church. The particular council of Elvira commanded all bishops, presbyters, deacons and subdeacons to abstain

from their wives, under penalty of exclusion from the clergy. In the Western church, celibory was rigorously required. Pope Cyricius, at the end of the 4th contury, forbade the clergy to marry, or to collabit with their wives, if already married. At the same time, the monks received ... consecration, which increased the conformity between them and the secular clergy still further, and indirectly obliged the latter to observe celibary. Several popes and particular councils repeated this injunction. The emperor Justinian declared all children of clergymen illegitimate, and incapable of any hereditary succession or mheritance. The council of Tours, in 50%, issued a decree against matried monks and nons, declaring that they should bepublicly excommunicated, and their mar-riage formally dissolved. Seculars, deacons and subdeacons, who were found to dwell with their wives, were interdicted the exercise of spiritual functions for the course of a year. In Spain, the bishops were ordered to enforce celibacy upon ' > their abbots, deacons, &c., once a year, in their sermons: for, in that country, many priests, formerly Arians, and newly-converted, refused to give up their vives, conformably to the requisitions of the Catholic church. As in other points, in this, also, the Greek clauch discrited from the Ro-The (Trullan) council of Constanmu. thople, in 692, in its 13th canon, declares, "Having heard that the Roman church has ordered the priests and deacons to . relinquish their lawful wives, we, assembled in this council, hereby decree, that priests and deacons, according to the anevent custom of the church, and the institution of the holy apostles, may live with their wives like the laity. We hereby forbid any one to refuse the consecration of a priest or deacon on account of his being imeried, and cobabiting with his wife, after he has requested consecration. We will by no means be unjust to marriage, nor separate what God has united." These ops, a soon became a matter beyond dis- regulations are still in force in the Greek charele; and, while celibacy is required of the bishops and monks; priests and deacons, if narried before consecration, are allowed to continue in the state of matrimony. This is not a reason for saving that the Roman church introduced celibacy; she has only retained it as an old apostorical tradition, to which the has added the rule, not to consecrate married men, unless the wife enter a religious order. As no one has a right to demand to be consecrated a priest, the Roman church has, by this addition, violated no one's right. The West-

em church had new reasons for enjoining celibacy, when the system of benefices began to be organized. At first, the officers of the church lived on the voluntary gals of the faithful. When the church acquired wealth, lands and titles, the revenue and estates of all the churches belonging to the diocese of a bishop were considered as one whole, the administration and distribution of which depended on the bishop. But, in the seventh, eighth and ninth centuries, a particular sum was taken from the common stock for each officer, the bishop This constitution of the not excepted. church was similar to that of the state, in which feudatories performed unlitary and other services, in consideration of the usufruct of certain lands. Even the name was the same. The possessions of the feudatories were called benefices, as well as these of the clergy. If the clerical benefices and employments had become hereditary, as was the case with the lay benefices, we should have seen a hereditary ecclesiastical caste, similar to that of the nobility, which has been transmitted to us from the middle ages, as a caste of warners and civil officers. We should have seen hereditary priests, hereditary bishops, and a hereditary pope. The rumous consequences, moral and political, which would have resulted from such a state of things, are easily conceived. All the feelings and principles of a pure and divine religion "cubines, in violation of canonical laws. would have disappeared in such an empire of priests. The most absolute despotism would have been established over the nations, and every attempt of the commons to attain a higher stand in political society would have been frustrated. When the canons in Wales afterwards abandoned celibacy, it was soon observed, that they had succeeded in making their benefices hereduary, by intermarriages between their sons and daughters. The fate of Wales would have been that of all the Christian nations of the West, if the mar-riage of priests had been answed. Whilst, however, the church persevered in com-manding celibacy, she had to struggle with the opposition of a corrupt clergy. The council of Narbonne, m 791, forbade the clergy to have any females living with them, even such as former rules had per-The same was ordered by the council of Mentz, 888. By the council of Augsburg, every clergyman was forbidden, under penalty of dismission, either to marry, or to cohabit with his wife, if already married, or to retain female companions who had been introduced under the name of sisters (subintroductas); and the bishop

was authorized, when suspicious women were found in the houses of clergymen. to drive them out with whips, and cut off their hair. In the council of Canterbury. king Edgar himself delivered a speech on the scandalous life of the clergy, whose houses, as he said, might well be considered as brothels. Soon afterwards, a great. number of canons and priests were dismissed, whose places were given to monks. In the council at Erham, in 1009, the clergy were directed anew to dismiss their wives. To those who abstained, it was even promised, that they should be treated like nobles by birth. Leo IX ordered that women at Rome, transgressing with priests, should be slaves in the Lateran for life. Adalbert, archbishop of Hamburg, excommunicated the concubines of priests, and had them ignominiously turned out of the city. Pope Victor II dismissed several bishops on account of their irregularities. Notwithstanding all such prohibitions, it appeared impossible to maintain the law of celibacy in force. In 1061, the Lombard bishops, most of whom had concubines, themselves elected Nodolaus, bishop of Parma, afterwards Honorius II, antipope, merely because he did not live in celibacy; and it was, therefore, hoped that he would not insist on the observance of the prohibitory law. Add to this, that most of these clergymen, living with conobtained their places by simony, and you have a true picture of the church in those The necessity was urgent that a days. reformer of the church should arise. He appeared in Gregory VII, who, like all men of great genius, has a right to be judged in reference to the spirit of his age. In order to reform the corrupted discipline of the church, he was obliged to encounter the Simony and licentiousness of the clergy. The former he checked by opposing the emperor's right of investiture, and enforced the laws of celibacy by new regulations. In the council of 1074, at Rome, he ordered that all married clergymen, and all laymen who should confess to them, hear mass of them, or be present at any divine service performed by them, should be excommunicated. When the bishop of Coire began to read this decree to the synod in Mentz, the clergy assailed him with reproaches and blows, so that he narrowly escaped with his life. They declared that they did not pretend to be angels, and would rather give up their pricathood than their wives. Gregory, nevertheless, succeeded, as he was supported by the most ancient and most undoubted canons. After

were repeated, as well as the rules of cantion concerning domestic life. Yet transgressions of this hard commandment were very trequent, particularly in the 15th and title centuries. In Petrarca's works are nany complaints of the licentiousness of he clergy at the pope's court in Avignon, where Petrarea lived for some time. In the accounts of the council of Basle, it is stated that many cardinals present there ived openly with their concubines. one of the chronicles of the mark of Brana question arose whether the bishop's concabine should precede the other ladies or Pot. The reformation followed. It recraised no sacrificing priests; virginity was esteemed no higher than conjugal fidelity; rows of chastily were considered no lonr obligatory ; and, as the Protestant clergy were subject either to the state or the r digions communities, it was no longer to w stared that they would, by their own anthority, make the benetices bereditary. Luther did not at first go the whole length d'ifiese changes. He thought the prolumen of matrinony rigust; yet he believd that the monks, who were bound to niney by their vows, ought to observe The wrote to Spalatin, Aug. 6, .521, 'Our Wittenbergians intend, too, to Live wives to the monks; but I shall not 15 r m self to have one forced upon me. Scribolomew Bernbards, a monk, head of to pligates establishment of Kemberg, acs the first of the elegy who married in 1521), and most of the Lutheran divides annated him. When the papal legate, carimal Campeggio, recommended the panslament of the married priests, this only witened the breach between the old and new church. Luther declared, in 1524, that Augin, Catharme von Bora. (q. v.) Celshacy was the weak side of the Catholic church, as many divines went over to, the reformed church under pretence of a enange in their religious sentiments, but, in reality, to be enabled to marry. reformed princes offered their clergy the alternative, either to marry, their concubines, or to put them away. The latter supposed a self-denial, which could not be

\* In Abbot's Letters from Cuba (Boston, 1829, p. 15), it is stated, that most of the priests on that bland have families, and speak of their children without scruple, and will sometimes even rea-son on the subject, and defend the practice. The case is much the same in a great part of South America.

in the same course. The prohibitions cubinage, and a change of religion was the necessary consequence of marriage. Some Catholics wished this weak spot in their : " church to be removed. At the council of Salzburg, in 1562, the bishops deliberated: . what measures ought to be proposed at the council of Trent, and resolved to vote for the marriage of the clergy. The duke of Bayaria likewise insisted upon the marrage of the priests. The emperor, then electors, and many other princes, directed their envoys to demand it. The king of France also desired the marriage of the conburg, we are informed that, at a feast, e clergy, or, at least, a maturer age for consecration. But the majority at Trent (sess, 24, can. 9) decided for celibacy, observing that God would grant the prayers of those, who prayed carnestly for chastity, and . would not suffer them to be tempted beyoud their strength. The provisions, in regard to celibacy, are as follows-The clergy of the Greek church, who were married before their consecration, a . . allewed to continue in a state of matrimo-The, priest, however, must abstain from his wife three days before every celchration of the mass. Of the Roman clargy absolute colliney is required, yet the four lower orders are permitted, on giving up their benefit is, to quit the elevical profession, and to marry. But, from the subdeacons rowards, cellbacy is communiced absolutely; except that the pope may give prime ion to refer from the clerical office, and, in consequence, to many. The penwho sit a transgressing the rules of celibacy no numerous. The wife must be disin side and periode undergone for the ct, nee. The offender is torbudden to perform the cod sustical functions belongmy to his degree, and cannot receive the higher conservation, as he becomes what is called irregular. Yet, after penance, he was not made of wood and stone, and, \* this irregularity may be removed by dis-on 1525, married the mun, the consecrated pensition from the bishop. Finally, he "virgin, Catharme von Bora. (q. v.) Cel- becomes excommunicated by the very act of his Mariage, and must, on this account, also, have recourse to the bishop, to be received again into the communion. In Germany, by the terms of the peace of Westphalia, a Catholic clergyman who marries loses his benefice and bis rank in the church, without loss of reputation, however, if his marriage be only a previous step to his adoption of the Protestant faith. Persons already married can be consecrated as clergymen only on condition of their taking a vow of chastity, to which the wife has given her consent. She must also enter some religious order. The rule of celibacy has been more strict-

reason of this is, that many incontinent clergymen have left the Catholic church, , and entered into one which allowed them to marry. Another reason is, that the Protestant reformation aroused the attention of the Catholic church to the necessity of a reform in its own body, and the observance of a stricter discipline. Hence few such public scandals have occurred as in former times, and transgression has been followed by immediate punishment. Yet it is not to be denied, that the rule of celibacy is often violated. Such a transgressions are to be expected, particularly at a time when education and so many other circumstances tend to in-, crease the influence of luxury , yet the far greater part of the Catholic elergy respect the rule of cehbacy at the present day. Among the reasons against requiring eehbacy in the clergy, is the increasing scarcity of men willing to devote themselves to a profession which requires such strict self-denial.

[The foregoing article, written by a Catholic, presents the views entertained on the subject of celibacy by the members of that communion. To those not educated in that church, it appears ex∂eedingly difficult to comprehend why a rule of life not enjoured by any express command or divine law, and which contravenes the dictates of facture and the obligations of society, should be regarded as of such importance to the excellence of the pre-thoot. That it would attach them more devotedly to the secular interests of the church, there can be no doubt; but that they would be a capable of ministering to the spiritual necessities of the people as those who are experienced in the feelings of the people, through theu difficult to believe

CELL: generally employed to designate , an apartment used as a midicus for wines, & c., and commonly under ground. The same term has various applications under duferent encumstances. Thus alla was used, by the Roman poets, to signify the lodge or habitation of common prostitutes, these being anciently under ground (see Jurenal, sat. vi. ver 121), having the names of the impates over the doors. The name of cell was also used for the lodgings of servants, among the Romans; for the apartments of the public baths; **for th**e *adyla* or mmost and most retred parts of the temples, where the images of the gods were preserved. The term all

ly observed in the Catholic churchesinee, was also applied to'a lesser or subordinate the reformation than it was before. One numster, dependent upon a greater, by which it was erected and under whose government it remained. The great ancient English abbeys had generally such cells in distant places, which were ac-countable to, and received their superiors from them. The apartments or private dorantories of monks and mais are also called cells.—In technology, the term cell is employed very frequently to signify any small compartment into which substances are divided; thus the hexagonal chambers of the honey-comb are called cells, as in botany the cavities, separated by partitions in the pods, husks or seed-vessels of plants, which are said to be unilocular, bilocular, trilocular, & c., according to the number of cells.—In anatomy, it is applied to various small cavities, such as the aircells, or pulmonary vesicles, the adipose cells, or spaces in the membrane which retains the fat. & c. The loose, inflatable textifre, which unites and surrounds all the part and organs of the body, has the name of cellular, from its being made up of a succession of these little membranous intersuces.

Cranystak (Antomo Guidice, duke of Giovena zo's prince of, born at Naples, 1657, and educated at the court of Chara-H of Span, made several campaigns, and was in the Spansh service during the greater part of the war of the Spansh succession, till he fell into the hands of the imposalists, or 1707, who kept him prisoner in Milan till 1712, when he was exchanged. On his return to Spain, he was made a cobmet minister, and, in 1715, ambassedor extraordmary to the French comt. Here he became the chief instrument of the designs of Alberon, and the sorl of a consparely against the regent, Philip of Otleans, 'A plot was formed social commexions, we should find it vegys for arresting the regent at a fistival, calling together the states-general of the kingdom, and declaring Plulip V regent, who, having thus become master of Spain and France, would have made the rest of \*Europe tremble. Cellamare was only waiting for further orders from his count, when the plan was discovered, and his letters, having been intercepted, revealed . the parties engaged in the conspiracy. He was arrested, and conducted, under an escort, to the Spanish frontiers. The court of Madrid made him captain-general of Old Castile. He died at Seville, m 17:33.

CILLARIUS, Christopher, one of the most learned philologists of the 17th centmy, was born in 1638. After he had

languages at Weissenfels. In 1673, e (best edition, 1731). His style, is free, was inade rector of the school at Weimer, strong and original, and the academy and afterwards of the seminaries at Zeitz della Crusca often quotes him as a classic. and Merseburg, and, finally, professor of cloquence and history at Halle, where he died in 1707. He published a great number of ancient authors, with learned annotations and very accurate indexes, as, for instance, the letters of Cicero and of Pliny, Comehus Nepos, Curtus, Entropus, Scatus Rufus, Velleius Paterculus, the 12 ancient panegyrists, Minueus Felix, Silius Italicus, &c. His own compositions relate to ancient lustory and geography, Roman antiquities, and the Lagin language

CELLINI, Benvenuto: a sculptor, engraver and goldsmith; born at Plorence, in 1500, where he died in 1570; distinguished particularly by his works in gold and silver, which have become very rare, and are sold at present at unmense prices. Of a bold, honest and open character, but vain and quarrelsome, and impatient of encroachment and dependence, he was often entangled in quartels, which frequently cost his antagonists then lives, He himself meinted great dangers, was put into pison, and was and only by his holdness and the powerful protectorwhom his talents as an artist procured him. At the siege of Rome (if we believe his own account, given, in his autobiography), he killed, with one cannon shot, the constable of Bourbon, and, with mother, the prince of Orange. He was afterwards imprisoned on the charge of having stolen the jewels of the papal crown, which were intrusted to him during the siego, and was released only by the interference of Franers I, whose court he visited, and executed there several works. He afterwards returned to Florence, and, under the patronage of Cosmo, made a Perseus with " the head of Medusa, in bronze, which is still an ornament of the market-place; also a statue of Christ, in the chapel of the Pitti palace, besides many excellent dies for coms and medals. In his 58th year, he wrote his own life in Latin, with equal candor and vanity. It has been translated, in a masterly manner, by Gothe. There is also an English into German translation by doctor Nugent, 1771; new edition by Thomas Roscoc, 1822. contains striking descriptions of Cellim's own adventures, and of the characters of the persons with whom he came in contact. Among his other writings, the most important are Due Trattati, uno intorno

studied at several German universities, he alle otto principali Arti dell' Oreficeria, mucht moral philosophy and the Oriental l'altro in Materia dell' Arte della Scoltura

CELLULAR SUBSTANCE, OF CELLULAR MEMBRANE (tela cellulosa or mucosa of Latin waters), is the medium which conmeets and supports all the various parts and structures of the body. Any person may gain a general notion of this substance by observing it in joints of veal, when it is inflated by the butchers. It consists of an assemblage of fibres and lamina of animal matter, connected with each other so as to form unumerable cells or small cavities, from which its name of cellular is derived. It pervades every part of the animal structure. By joining together the minute fibrils of muscle, tendon or nerve, it forms obvious and visible fibres. It collects these fibres into large fusciculi, and, by joining such fusciculi, or buildles, to each other, constitutes an entire muscle, tendon or nerve. It joins together the individual muscles, and is collected in their intervals. It surrounds each vossel and nerve in the body, often connecting these parts together by a firm kend of capsule, and, in a looser form, joining them to the neighboring muscles, &c. When co densed into a firm and compact structure, it constitutes the various membranes of the body, which, by long maceration in water, may be resolved into a loose, cellular texture. In the bones, it forms the basis or ground-work of their fabric, a receptacle, in the interstices of which the earth of bone is deposted. As cellular substance is entirely soluble in boiling water, it is considered, by chemists, as that peculia modification of animal matter termed gelatine. In consequence of its solution by the united agencies of heat and moisture, the muscular fibres separate from each other, and form the other structures of the body. This effect is seen in meat whick subjected to long boiling or stewing for the table, or, indeed, in a joint which is merely over-boiled. It forms a connexion and passage between all parts of the body, however remote in situation or dissimilar in structure; for the cells of this substance every where communicate, as we may collect from facts of the most common and familiar occurrence. It emphysema, where air escapes from the tungs wounded by a broken rib into the cellular substance, it spreads rapidly from the chest into the most remote parts of the body, and has even been known to gam admission into the eye-ball. A similar diffusion of this fluid may be effected by artificial inflation.

· Celsus, Aurelius Cornehus, In ed, probably, under the reign of Augustus. He has been called the Roman Hippocrates, because he imitated the Greek physician, and introduced the lippocratic system He also wrote on rhe.out, iuto Rome the art of war and agriculture. He is, however, but known as a medical winer. His style is elegian, concise, and, nevertheless, very clear. It's work on andme is an mexband be source, hen which other good codors have drawn marchals for writing, is the coduct with surged. B. his fluoritad subsequent writers with a multiful of nathorities for has suffered surch cross of the scretation. Happocrates and Isel and see the two authors when I has allowed most. Mor than 59 obsers of less books De M. bring and app. a. 1 1, 1785; the first at Horm v. 1475, fid., the best is by Krause, Lope c, 1766 that of Paga was punted at Padaa, 1765, Politic one of Verena, 1810 Pe

Crims that in 3 to memselves, about Guller Colo, or Cally my of an four chief consisting this bod Cent.
They for may execut them to extend open of Batting of the this god the Alos The Bonney Collaboration for whole covery Celtury, or Golesee. They 1 th American condensation 1 as 1 at die two of Temperator Parent erra of der Bellov sus, o Upper Tabler et la ... numbers of their point had so call countries of horses of a respectively be-communicated with the Person, when they congregate by my branes, about to m. and commerce with the Romaics. and with the people of " and less is te their more evanzed. The frateric hie were subjected, 220 B C, by the Remark The Bon united thems dves with the Helveta: the Illymer C. he with the thyrings. Then given man was distocratical. The nobles formed a national asseculty. The commons were regarded as little better than slave. They were large, and of great bodily stougth, impetnous in their attacks, but not well able to · endure hardships. A huge sword, generally of copper, was their chief weapon. Their priests, the Danids (q. v.), enjoyed the greatest authority.

Celtes. Conrad; born, m 1159, at Protuch, in Francoma. His original name was Meissel, which he changed into Ciltes Protucius. He ran away from has parents, and studied in Cologne. In 1481

and 1485, he studied under the tuition of Rodolph Agricola, at Heidelberg, and become a philologist and Latin poet., He then travelled to Italy, where he attended the lectures of the most learned teachers of his time. On his return through B lyria, Hungary and Poland, he was taught astronomy and astrology by Albertus Bretus, and met with the most favorable reception at the German courts. In Nuremburg, he was crowned by the emper-Problem III (1491), on account of the reputation which he had acquired by Lis-Livin poems, being the first German pe-'who received this honor. He afterwards travelled for 10 years, visiting all the inversitive in Germany, and found, at length, the support of their language theories, but a resting-place in Vienna, where Maximal Ca. Lappointed lum, in 1501, prefessor c. poetry and thetoric, and president of the the ulty established for the study of chesee I amplities. He left a history of description of Nuremburg, a poem on the s action and manners of Germans, see eral philosophical, rhetorical and bec crapheral works, and a number of poen He consider the such of languages ie a blood of philologists of his time, se aa olg et of jansier och self, but only o 211 ,1715 of 16 19 guntance v on the business of his · meh ... the second di i mase ere ng where he placed history and a our opby from His plan for a great layiv so new as ababias Celtica), for which is but it is decolorized grants of privilege ne of the emperer, was interrupted by hi coalicm 150% Cally the Rhoush cockey, with he consider in Heidelbeff2, outlive

> C. TILLIO, O. CILTIDI BIANS: inhales ants of Celiber a a country along the theory, a the rord-east port of Spar-They I was I the most man rous tabe in Spain me, or rested from Berrans mixed with Cel. They were brave, and their concas was ferroudable even to the Ro mens. Tray despised agriculture. After along resist mee to the Romans, they were, at last, in the Sertoman war, subjected is their sovereignty, adopted their manners, language, dress, &c. They were divided language, dress, & c. into six title s-the Bellones, Arevaer, Peleudones, north of the Durius; and the Lusones, Belli and Ditthi, more to the south

> Cementation; a chemical process, in which a metal (and often other bodies) is placed in connexion with other substances, often in layers (stratum super stratum), in close vessels, that the former may be separated from its combinations, or changed (frequently oxydated), at a high tempera-

ture. The substance with which the metal or other body is surrounded is called cement-powder. In cementing gold, the alloy is beaten into thin plates, and placed in alternate layers, with a cement containing intrate of potass and sulphate of iron. The whole is then exposed to heat, until a great part of the alloying metals are reroyed by the action of the intric acid hberated by the nitre. Iron is cemented with charcoal-powder and other substances, and thereby converted into steel. Glass is changed, by comentation with aypsum, into Réaumur's porcelam. Copnune and chargoal, and thereby converted into brass. The copper obtained from the sulphate of copper, by precipitation with iron, is called cement-copper.

CEMENTS. The substances used for producing cohesion between different materials me very various. They are mostly, bowever, soft or senn-third, and harden in the course of time. The number employed is very great. We can mention only a few. The joints of iron pipes, and the flanges of steam-engines, are cemented with a mexture composed of sulphu and muriate of animonia, together with a targe quantity of iron chippings. The putty of glaziers is a mixture of linseed oil and powdered chalk. Plaster of Paris, dired by hent, and muxed with water, or with rosm and wax, is used for mating pieces of marble. A cement composed of buckdust and rosm, or putch, is employed by traners, and some other mechanics, to contine the material on which they are working. Confinon paint, made of white lead and oil, is used to cement China-ware. So also are resmons substances, such as n astic and shell lac, or isingless dissolved in proof-spirit or water. The paste of bookbinders and pyper-hangers is made by boiling flowr. Rice-glue is made by boilng ground me in soft water to the consistence of a thin jelly. Wafers are made of flour, isinglass, yeast and white of eggs, died in thin layers upon the plates, and cut by a encular instrument. They are colored by red-lead, &c. Scaling-way is composed of shell lac and rosm, and is commonly colored with verimbon. Common glue is most usually employed for uniting wood, and similar porous substances. It does not answer for surfaces not porous, such as those of the metals. and is not durable if exposed to water. The cements mostly used in building are composed of lime and sand. Lime is procured by burning substances in which it exists in combination with carbonic acid,

such as limestone, marbles, chalk and shells. By this process, the carbonic acid is driven off, and quicklime is obtained. The quickline is slaked by mixture with water, after which it swells and cracks,... becomes hot, and assumes the form of a white and impalpable powder. This is a hydrate of lime, and contains about three parts of lime to one of water. When intended for mortar, it should be immediately mixed with sand, and used without delay, before it imbibes carbonic acid anew from the atmosphere. The lime adheres to and unites the particles of the sand. per is cemented with a powder of cala- \* Cements thus made increase in strength and solidity for an indefinite period. Fresh sand, wholly silicious and sharp, is the best. That taken from the sea-shore is unfit for making mortar, as the salt is apt to delique-ce and weaken the mortar. amount of sand is always greater than that of the line. From two to four parts of sand are used, according to the quality of the lime and the labor bestowed on it. Water cements, called also Roman cements. harden under water, and consolidate almost immediately on being mixed. Coramon mortar dissolves or crumbles away if lard under water before it has had time to harden: but certain rocks, which have an regall accours. Well as a subcious character, communicate to line or mortar the property of bardening in a very few minides, both in and old of water. ancient Romens, in making their water census, employed a peculiar earth, obtained at the town of Putcoh. This they eilled pulvis Prividanus It is the same that is now called Pozzolana. It is evidently of voicame origin. The Dutch, in their great aquatic structures, have mostly employed a substance denominated turnas. terries, or trass, found near Andermach, in the vicinity of the Rhine - It is said to be a kind of decomposed basalt, but resembles Puzzolana. It is very durable in water, but inferior to the other kinds in the open an. Baked clay and the common greenstone afford the basis of very tolerable water cements, when mixed with lime. Some of the ores of manganese may be used for the same purpose. Some limestones, calcined and mixed with sand and water, also afford water cements, usually in consequence of containing some argiflaceous earth, Some cements, of great hardness and/ permanency, have been obtained from 'mixtures, into which animal and vegetable substances enter, such as oil, milk, mucilage, &c. The name of maltha or mustic is given them. They are not much used.

In the article Burying-Places, we have given the history of the custom of interring the dead, and shall only mention, in this place, two cemeteries, perhaps the most interesting which ever existed. One of them is the common place of burial of the ancient Egypmore, which was situated beyond the lake Acherusia, or Achavejish, the name of which signified the last condition of nean, and which probably is the foundanon of the Greek fables respecting lake A heron. On the borders of lake Acherisa, a fribunal composed of 42 judges, generations, was established, to impure into the life. Abeliard, the lind character of the deceased. Without hile, Moleire, this, evanimation, a corpse could not be carried to the cornetery beyond the lake. If the deceased had died insolvent, the court adjudged the coupse to his creditors, in order to oblige his relations and friends to redeem ( . If his hig had been wicked, they refused his body the praydege of solenar burial, and it was consequently carried and thrown into a large ditch made for the purpose, which received the appellation of Tartar, on account of the lamentations which this suitance produced among the surviving the nessare relations. The Greel. Turtarus had its origin in this Egyptian Tartar. If no access appeared, or the accusations were forwal ground- less, the judges decreed the regular bread. and the culogium of the decess I was pronounced amoust the applicaces of me bystanders. In this, his adents, votres, accomplishments, every thing except his rank and urbes, were praised. Wo conv the corpse to the countery, it was necessary to cross the lake, and to per a small sum for the passage. This encumstance also was transplanted into the Greek invthology. The cemetery was a bree plant, surrounded by trees, and intersected by canals, to which was given the appellanck Elisout, or Elisians, meaning rest. Lyery one recognists, in his description, the Greek Charon, his book, his erry-money, and the Elysian fields. The whole conmony of interment seems to have consisted in depositing the primiting in the excavation made in the rock, or under the said which covered the whole Elisout then it seems that the relations of the deceased threw three handfuls of sand, as a sign to the workmen to fill up the cavity, after uttering three loud farewells. (See Lectures on Hieroglyphics and Egyption Antiquities, by the marques Spineto, London, 1829.)—Another temetery of great interest is that of Pere Lachaise (see Luchaise), in the north-west part of Paris,

not fur from the barrière des Amandiers. This city of the dead has a superficies of more than 51 arpents, and contains agreat variety of tombs, some of a touching simplicity, with the marks of unaffected grief, while others remind us of the words of St. Augustine: " Curatio funcris, conditio sepultura, pompa exequiarum, magis vivorum ... solulia quam subsidia mortuorum." \* Co!umns, obclisks, pyramids, funeral vases, monuments of all kinds, and flowers, cover this cemetery, but point out a few only of. those who rest in this last abode of many Here repose Heloise and Abelaid, the conqueror of Essingen; Debile, Mokere, La Fontaine and Foy, and a crowl of philosophers, arusts, warrors, politicians, and individuals from the ordi mary walks of life. From this place you look down on the bastle of the gayest city A chapel in the burying m the world. ground affords the functive wort Paris.

Crnci, Beatrice, called the brantiful parricide, was the cause of the extermination of the noble family of Cency. Muratern or his Annals (vol. 10, pt. 1, 136), relates the story as follows. Francesco Cener, a roble and wealthy Roman, after his second marriage, conducted towardthe children of his first marriage in the plost shocking immer, procured the assassnation of two of his sous, on their retran from Spain, by banditis, and, what is P P wore horred, wake ed and debancle d l'is young st oaugher, a maiden of singulabeauty. Beating discovered this short. regularies to be relatives, and even sought to ob an profection from popy Clement. It opposas, Fowever, that this was not granted. Or, who a the guilty father coninouch his torbier treatment, with aggrevated wickens s, she joined with her to ther Grapma and procured the death of the most ter, by two assassus, as be slept. The gulty parties were discovered confessed the murder on the rack, and, were condequard by the pope to be torato pieces by horses. In vain did the learn-Farmaceus (celebrated for lus Que stiones) even hunself to obtain a untigation of their painshment by a lively representation of the deprayity of the deceased According to other accounts, Beatrice and ber relatives appear to have had little or no share in the murder of the old Cenci; but a tissue of villary and baseness gamed belief to the false testimony of two barditti against the Cener family. So much is certain, that, Sept. 11, 1599, Beatrice Cenci and her sister were executed with a sort of guillotine, called mannaia. Giacomo was killed with a club; the younger broth-

er was pardoned on account of his youth; but the estates of the family, to which belonged the villa Borghese, since so famed for its treasures of art, were confiscated, and presented by the reigning pope, Paul V, of the house of Borghese, to his family. In the palace of Colonna, at Rome, travellers are shown an excellent painting, said to be by Guido Reni, as the portrait of the unfortunate particide; and this charming picture of the beautiful girl has been the means of spreading over all Europe the tale of horror connected with it.

Cryis, Mount: a mountain belonging to the Alps, in the county of Mannienne, in Savoy. Its height is stated to be 8670 het above the level of the sea. It is famous for the road which leads over it from Savoy to Piedmont. (See Alps, Roads over.) On the mountain is a plan, called Madeleino, and a lake, with an hospital, called La Ramasse. The lake contains froms of 16 pounds weight. This plan is surrounded by higher peaks covered with snow (See Alps.) Beny muo Cellim's journey over the Alps, in the 16th century. Evelyn's, in the 17th, lady Mary Westles's and Horace Walpole's, in the 18th, ere all interesting; but the danger has been removed by Napoleon's road.

CENORITE. (See . Inchord, and Monus-

CINOTAPH (from the Grek ) called also to party, a monument error of in honor of a decrased person, but not containing his body, as is implied from de terms and empty, and - i , a term. Some of these monuments were eregted in honor of persons barred ess where, othcis for persons whose bodies were not reterred. The ancients believed that, while the body was not puried, the soul could not be admitted into the abodes of the blessed. When a body could not be found, it was supposed that some rest was , afforded to the sufferer by erecting him a cenotaph, and calling out his usine three times with a loud voice. Such monuments were distinguished by a particulæ sign, usually a piece of a shipwrecked . vessel, to denote the death of the deceased m a foreign land. The Pythagoreans creeted cenotable to those who had quitted their sect, as if they were actually dead.

CENSORS were magistrates at Rome, who kept a register of the number of the people and of their fortune, and (from 442 B. C.) regulated the taxes. At the same time, they watched over the manners of the citizens. They were chosen every fifth year. This institution, at the period of simple manners in which it was founded, may have been beneficial, but're is wholly inconsistent with our ideas of. individual liberty. In the different goveruments of Europe, consors are persons, appointed by the government to administer the censorship of the press. (q. v.)

CENSORSHIP OF BOOKS. (See Books,

Censorship of.)

CENSUS; with the Romans, one of the most important institutions of the state, and the foundation of its future greatness It was introduced by king Servius Tulhus, B. C. 577. All Roman citizens, both in the city and in the country, were obliged to report the amount of their property, the ... number of their children, slaves, &c., under penalty of losing their property and their liberty. According to the statement thus given m, Servus Tullius divided the entirens into six classes, and those again into centuries. (q. v.) The first class consisted of those whose fortunes amounted respectively to at least 100,000 asses or pounds of copper. The property of the second was at least 75,000; that of the third, 50,000; that of the fourth, 25,000; of the tifth, 11,000 usses: all the rest (Sec .4s.) belonged to the sixth class Unch class had a particular kind of arms, a particular post in the army, &c. This division prospeed the most important consequences for Rome. At an earlier, period, the poor entirens were obliged to pay the same taxes, and render the same services in wer, as the rich; and the most important branches of the public administration were in the hands of the ignorant and passionate mob. The heavest burdens in war and in peace were, by this restitution transferred to the rich, and the che i direction of public affairs was placed in the hands of the first class, which contarged, according to the rule of division; established by Service Tulling, as many renturies as all the rest. The entirens of . the lew-st class, who had no property, or very little, were hardly counted as a class, so that the ancient authors often mention only five classes. In the course of time, the original divisions suffered some alterations, but the institution remained essentially the same. This census was repeated every fifth year, at first by the kings, afterwards by the consuls, and, finally, by the At a later period, however, it was not always taken at the fixed time. and was often entirely omitted. After the ternlination of the census, an expiatory sacrifice was offered, called suovetaurilia. in the U. States, the census has again become an institution of great political importance, as it affords the basis of the

national representation. The constitution (art. 1, sect. 2, 3) says, "Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states which may be included within this union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons. The actual emmeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the congress of the U. States, years, in such manner as they shall by law direct," &c. Thus we shall have, in the year 1830, another census, which will rapid increase of several of the new states. (For the results of this new census, see the article United States.)

CENTAURS; an ancient barbarous peo-ple in Thessaly, on mount Pehen.' According to the fable, they were the chil-dren of Centaurus, a son of Apollo, and the marcs of Magnesia, or of Ivion and the cloud. (See Irion.) They are said to have been half horse and half wan, and the fable is explained in this manner. The Centaurs first practised the art of mountmg and managing, horses. In the time of the The-sahan king I you a beid of wild bulls on mount Pelion committed great devastations in the adjacent country. Ixion offered a great reward to who yer should destroy them: in consequence of which, the Centam's trained horkes to bear them on their backs, and slew the bulls, Mythology relates the combats of the Cen-tains with Herenles, Thes us and Punthous. The latter, at the head of the Lapithie, another Thessahan nation, then, hereditary generices, entirely defeated them, killed many, and drove them from Pelion. The Centaurs Ness is, Chiron and othe are famous in ancient fable. The latter is often mentioned under the name Contaurus.

CENTAURY. There exist two plants of this name, used in medicine; small centaury (chironia centaurium of Lamarck), indigenous in Europe, growing abundantly every where; and American centaury (chironia angularis of Woldenow), extensively distributed throughout the I nited Both are annual plants, and esteemed as tomes and febrifuges; the latter, however, is preferred by the American physicians. It is also much used in domestic practice as a prophylactic against antimonal fevers, in strong infusions, in large and repeated doses.

CENTIARE; a French moasure, the hundredth part of an are (q. v.); thus, also, according to the new French division of measures and weights, we have centigramme, centilitre, centime, centimetre, the hundredth part of a gramme, litre, franc, metre. (See French Decimal System.)

CINTIGRADE. (See Thermometer.) CENTIMANI. (See Briareus.)

CINTIPED (scolopendra, 1..); a genus of insects belonging to the order myriapoda, C. They are distinguished by having antenna of 14 joints and upwards, a and within every subsequent term of ten mouth composed of two mandables, a quadritid hp, two pulpi, or small feet, unit ed at their base, and a second lip, formed by a second pair of dilated feet, joined at be highly interesting, on account of the their origin, and terminated by a strong book, having an opening beneath its point, through which a poisonous fluid is thrown out. The body is long, depressed and membranous, each ring being covered by a corractous or cartilagmous plate, and mostly having one pair of feet; the last is arsually thrown backwards, and clongated in form of a tail. These insects are nocturnal and carmyorous, and uniformly endervor to escape from the light. They concent themselves under the decayed back of trees, the decayed tunbers of baddings, among stones, humber and rub lash, whence they sally forth at night in search of prey. The centiped is one of the greatest pests to be encountered in the West India islands, and throughout the Lot parts of the American continent. The materials of which the houses are constreeted, and the capid decay to which tumber is subject in such climates, afford these noxious insects excellent hiding places, and they multiply with great rapidity. The irmost vigilance, even in the most clearly houses, is necessary to spreyent these creatures from finding their way into the beds, which they often do? notwithstanding all the care that is taken to prevent them. They always attempt to escape when a light is brought into the room. They run with considerable swiffness, but are quite ready to stand on the defensive, and bite with severity This disposition to bite upon the slightest provocation renders them very dangerous when once they have entered a bed; the least movement of the sleeper over whom they may be crawbing, and who can scarcely fail to be disturbed by their sharppointed feet or claws acting upon his skin, will ensure a venomous bite, which will be frequently repeated if the centiped be not speedily dislodged. The bite is exceedingly painful at the moment, and is

followed by a high degree of local inflammation and a fever of great irritation. Where the insect is large, and the bite revere, life is much endangered, and not unfrequently lost, especially if the sufferer be of delicate and irritable habit of body. The inmediate application of a cuppingclass, or any convenient substitute, over the wound, removes the pain and dauger at once. Spirits of hartshorn (volatile al-'ada, aqua ammome alcoholiz), applied to " part, and doses of the same adminisred internally (30 or 40 drops) twice, thrace or oftener in a day, will also lessen the pun, and avert dangerous consenentioned is the quickest and most certain. A popular remedy, in all places where the comped is common, is the apphention to the wound of brandy or ruin n which a centified has been for some time preserved. This truly noxious insect grows to the size of six melics and more in length, and is a formulable inprate of most of the houses in tropical regions. Bishop Heler speaks of them as being very large and porsonous in different parts of India. So accustomed are the West rodicishes and contents of their presence, acting adhes of danger from their late,

at no particular pums are taken to lessen then numbers, or to banish them effectuills. It is very probable that they might be readily destroyed by pineing pasoned a of within their rach; yet, while resideat in the West Indies, we never heard cr'any one being at the tremble of the exper ment, though compeds were almost duly killed about the house. They are trequently brought to the U. States in carpoes of hides, & c.; and, a few years since, in individual, employed in unladere a ves dat Bosion, lost his life in censiquence of being lattern by one of these msects, brought over in this way. It is posse sible that the contiped is to be found in the most southern parts of the U. States, though it has not as yet been spoken of is an annoyance. Species having considerable resemblance to the centiped of the West Indies, and much dreaded on account of their bite, are often seen about extensive collections of funber and lumber at the saw-mills on the head waters of the Susquehanna, &c. A smaller, dark, reddish-brown species, known, by the name of thousand legs, is common in most parts of this country, living under dead bark or among decaying timbers. The order myriapoda, to which these insects pertain, from their crustaceous covering, the formation of the mouth, &c., appears to form the

transition from the crustaceous or crablike animals to insects proper. They are the only insects which, in their perfect state, have more than six feet, and have the abdomen not distinct from the trunk. They live and grow much longer than other insects, surviving through several generations. When first hatched, they have but six feet, or, at least, fewer thanthey afterwards acquire. The additional feet, as well as the rings to which they are attached, become developed as they advance in age—a sort of change peculiar to this race.

CENT JOURS (French: signifying hundred days). From the 20th of March. 1815, when Napoleon a second time asconded the throne of France, to the 28th of June, when Louis XVIII again resumed the government in Cambray, just 100 days shipsed. Hence that interregions is called le gouvernement des cent jours. None of the measures of the administration then existing have been acknowledg-, ed by the present government. Therefore the 42 manbers of the collection of laws (Bulletin des Lois) which appeared during this time, containing 313 ordinances, in cluding the 12 resolutions of the provisoand commuter of government (from the 22d to the 20th of June), have only a historical inferest, and no builting power as laws. They form the seath - rues (serie) of this collection, which commences with the establishment of the famous revolutionary tubural (March 11, 1793), and is still continued in the eventh series. If 4. facility with which Napoleon advanced trem Cannes to Pare, with only 1100 men, without striking a blow, in 11 days, and the readmess with which many, who had always opposed the emperor, joined Largetter their shot experience of what Prace had to expect from the Bourbons and the old eristoeracy, show how hatle attachment existed in France for the old dyrasty; the history of the "hundred of the other hand, affords a proof that Napoleon hunself had lost the base of real power, the support of public opn ion ; or that, knowing the character of the French nation, and of his age, so well in , many respects, he yet pusapprehended both in other points of much importance (For an account of his unequalled march from Cannes to Paris, see Napoleon. His siete additional of the 22d of April, 1815, passing over enurely the Charte constitutionnelle of June, 1814, alters and supplies the deficiencies of the constitutions of 1799 (year 8), of 1802, which established the consulship for life, and of

1804, which established the imperial dignity. This acte sought to gain the favor . of the people by the grant of more extensive privileges to the two chambers, by conferring greater independence on the courts, by a tacit abolition of the special courts and of the state prisons (prisons d'état), by granting entire liberty of the press, and totally suppressing hereditary distinctions. A general electoral assembly (champ de Mai) was convoked to gratify the taste of the people for great spec-But the charm, once broken, could not be renewed. With one party, Napoleon found no confidence in luspromises; the other used its new independence to impose further restrictions on , the government. The loss of a battle was sufficient to overthrow his all-supported power; and Vapoleon, deserted and pressed by his former adherents (Pouche, Caufaincourt, Carnot, & c.), was obliged to abdicate a second time. The numsters, during this period, appointed by a decree of the 20th of March, 1815, were Gaudin, duke of Gaeta, numster of finance; Maret, duke of Bassano, secretary of state the duke Decres, manster of the manne; Fouche, manster of the police; Molhen, treasurer; Davoust, prince of Feknahl. minister of war; Caulamcourt, duke of Vicenza, minister of foreign affairs; Carnot, minister of the interior, Cambacérès, duke of Parma, arch-chancellor and romister of justice. After the resum of the king, by the ordinance of the 24th of July, 1815, all members of the chamber of peers of 1814 (29 m number), who had accepted places during the "hundred days," were excluded from the chamber; but they have since been restored, with the exception of two (Barral, archbishop of Tours, and count Canclaux). Of the 117 peers of the "handred days," there are at preent only 40 m the chamber. The law of . the 12th of January, 1816, declared a general amnesty, with the exception of those who had voted for the death of Louis XVI, and of those who had accepted office during the "hundred days." They were condemned to perpetual banishment, were declared to have forfested all public rights, and to be incapable of possessing estates, (See Chambre Introuvable; also the articles France and Napoleon.)

CENTLIVEL, Susaina, a dramatic writer, was born in Ireland, in 1667. Her mind having early taken a romantic turn, on being unkindly treated by those who had the care of her after the death of her mother, she formed the resolution of going to London. Travelling by herself on

foot, she was met'by Mr. Hammond, father of the author of the love elegies, then a student at the university of Cambridge, who persuaded her to assume the habit of a boy, in which disguise she lived with hun some months at college. 'At length, fearing a discovery, he induced her to proceed to the metropolis, where, being yet only in her 16th year, she married a nephew of sir Stephen Fox. Becoming a widow within a year, she took for a second husband an officer of the army, of the name of Carrol, who was killed in a duel the , second year of their wedlock. This event m her singular career reduced her to considerable distress, and led her to attempt dramatic composition. Her first production was a tragedy, entitled the Pertured Husband, which was performed in 1700. This was followed by several comedies, chiefly translations from the French, which exhibited the vivacity that distinguishes her literary character, and met with some temporary success. She also tried the stage as an actress on the provincal boards, and by that means attracted the attention of her third and last husband, Mr. Centhyre, yeoman of the month. to queen Anne, whom she married in 1706. She still continued writing for the stage, and produced several more comethes. Some of these remain stock pieces, of which number are the Busy Body, the Wonder, and a Bold Stroke for a Wife They are diverting from the bustle of the incident and the liveliness of the characters, but want the accompaniments of adequate language and forcible delineation. They partock of the beense of the age. Mrs. Centhyre enjoyed the friendship of Steete Farquhar, Royc, and other wits of the day. Having, however, offended Pope, she obtained a place in the Dunciad, but is introduced by no means characteristically. She was handsome in person, and her conversation was sprightly and agreeable : her disposition also appears to have been friendly and benevolent. She died un 1723. Besides her dramatic works, published in 3 vols., 12mo., 1763, a vol ume of her poems and letters were col lected and published by Boyer.

CENTO (Latin); originally, a cloak made of patches (hence, as Lessing observes, the dress of Harlequin is called, in Apulcius, mimi centuculus). The term has been transferred to such poems as have been formed out of werses taken from other poems. It was a particular art to combine passages of different authors, on different subjects, in this manner, so as to form a regular whole. Thus

there were, in early times, Virgilian centos (centones Virgiliani), in which most of the verses were taken from Virgil; for instance, the epithalamium of Ausonius; and centos from the verses of Homer (Homerocentones).

CENTRAL AMERICA. The republic of . Central America comprises the old kingdom of Guatimala. It is bounded north by Mexico and the bay of Honduras, east by the Curibbean sea and the province of Veragua (belonging to Colombia), and south-west by the Pacific ocean. It extends from 8° 467 to 17° 51' north latitude. The population of Guatimala was stated, by Humboldt, in 1808, at about 1,300,000; by Malte-Brun, in 1820, at 1,200,000; by the patriots, at 1,800,000. The rivers are numerous, but small. The largest are the Chiapa and St. Juan. The principal lakes are those of Nicaragua and Leon. The whole country is mountainous, but the particular ridges are but little known. On the western shore, the country is subject to the most tremendous convulsions of nature, which have involved, at times, whole cities in runs, and exterminated complete tribes of people. No less than 20 volcanoes are known to exist, which are in constant activity; some of them terrific. The soil is described as exceedengly ferble, and better cultivated than most parts of Spanish America; and, according to Humboldt, this country, when he saw it, was the most populous of the Spanish provinces. It produces, abundantly, grain, cochineal, honey, wax, cotton, sugar-cane, indigo, punento and choco-Cattle and sheep are abundant. ate. The bay of Honduras is celebrated for its trade in logwood. The temperature in some parts is exceedingly hot and moist. The rams last from April to September, and violent storms are frequent. climate is more healthy on the western. coast than on the eastern. It is now di-.• vMed unto the states of Guatimala, Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Costa Rica. corresponding to the provinces of which it consisted before the revolution, in which .t declared itself independent of Spain, in September, 1821. This region was peopled originally by a party of the Toltecas Indians, from Mexico, as sufficiently appears from their language, and other indications of their origin; and tradition preserves the name of Nimaquiche, who led the colony from Tula to their new abode. At the time of the conquest of Mexico by

Cortez, a descendant of Nimagniche, call-

ed Tecum Umam, reigned in Utatlan, the

principal seat of the Quiches, or primitive

inhabitants of the country. They were subdued by Pedro de Alvarado, acting under a commission from Cortez. set out from Mexico on this expedition in 1523, with an army of 300 Spaniards, commanded by Pedro de Portocarrero and Hernando de Chaves, with a large body of auxiliary Indians from Mexico, Cholula and Tlascala. Many desperate and sanguinary battles were fought before the invaders could effect the subjugation of the country. Most of these conflicts occurred in the districts of Suchiltepeque and Quezaltenango, where numerous traditions and local memorials of these events still remain among the aborigines. Six desperate battles took place near the river Zamala, which thus acquired, in the viemity of the fields of carnage, the name of Niquigel, or River of Blood. A long course of warfare ensued before Alvarado could break the spirit of the Quiches. After the death of their king, Tecum Umam, who fell in battle at the head of his subjects, they had recourse to a stratagem as bold as it was grand in conception. Their chief city, Utatlan, abounded in palaces and other sumptions edifices, being bardly surpassed in splendor by Mexico and Cusco. It was encompassed by a lofty wall, and was capable of being entered only at two points; on one side by a canseway, and on the other by a flight of steps. Within, the buildings stood high and compact. In the hope of exterminating their enemies, the Quiches inwited the Spamards into their capital, pretending a willingness to submit. After their entrance, the Quiches set fire to the city, and, if the Indians of another tribe had not been false to their countrymen. and betrayed the secret, Alvarado and his followers would have perished. Having escaped this danger, the Spaniards pursued their victorious course until all opposithon was crushed, and, in 1524, laid the foundations of the city of Guatimala. After the appropriation of the Quiches, the remaining tribes were subdued with comparative facility, and the dominion of the conquerors was permanently established. The government of this country, as consututed by Spain, was subject to the Mexican; but the dependence was far from being close. It was denominated the kingdom of Guatimala, and governed by a captaingeneral. Owing to the secluded position of the people, and their peculiar occupations and spirit, they were almost the last among the Spanish colonies on the continent to embrace the cause of independence. While an obstinate struggle was

going on around them, they remained for a long time in perfect tranquillity! At length, in September, 1821, they declared their independence of Spain; and although, for a time, Iturbide obtained the control of a large part of the country, yet, on his downfall, they recurred to their original purpose of forming a separate republic. A constituent congress was convoked, which completed the organization of the general government, Nov. 22,, 1824, by the adoption of a federal constitotion analogous to that of the U. States. Under the consumon, Manuel Jose Arce was elected first president of the republic. various differences, however, of a pointwal nature, have prevented his adminisranon from being a tranquil or happy one. Violent factions have plunged the ountry into a civil war, which has contimed since the beginning of 1827.1 was commenced by the inhabitants of the sate of Salvador, who, on account of , some realousy of the people of Guatimala, proceeded from one degree of opposition a another, until they actually levied troops, ad marched into the territory of the Guatimaltecans. They were teaten by the troops of the general government unher the command of Arco, and arcon back into Salvador; but still the wer has been protracted with various saces Besides this, disturbances of a secon-· haracter have existed in others or the states; all tending to show that the people are far from being well titted for the callcare task of self-government. The Lov-, runent consists of a president, a sensie, and a chamber of representatives. The Catholic is the established religion. other is tolerated. Slavery is anolished The commercial regulations are on a much more liberal footing than in the settle er new republies. Foreigners have the same rights with the natives. Linglishmen and adventurers from the U. States was der over this rich republic, and convon a lucrative commerce with the mayes, the reasures which the country offers in gold and silver being in the hands of the laboring class. The flag of the United Provinces of Central America consists of three , stripes of different colors, with three vol- cances (signifying the three prescipal provinces-Guatimala, Nicaragua and Comavagua), under a randow, wate the inscrip-tion, "God, concord, liberty." The princinal town, Guatimala, and the province of the same name, are so called from the Indian word guanhtemali (rotten wood), the Indian term for Campeachy wood. Cortez founded the towns of Guatimala

and San Salvador. 'No colony cost Spain less blood than the vice-kingdom of Guatunala; but no other had so noble a gov-' ernor as Las Casas. The soil is volcanic, and luxuriantly fertile. A large quantity of indigo is annually exported. The lake of Nicaragua, 121 miles in length and 41 in breadth, may become highly important . in a commercial respect, as the navigable ' river S. Juan unites it to the Atlantic ocean, and a canal has been proposed for connectmg the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, to recerve its water from this lake. There are several volcanoes on its aboves. The aboriginal population of the country has very much decreased. The runs of Huehuedapallan (q. v.) are remarkable: 4 The converted Indians are called Ladinos: the others. Barbaras, or Bravos. Two pieces of land (Taguagalpa and Tolagalpa), belonging to the United Provinces, have never been subjected by the European settlers, or their descendants, and are inhabited by the independent Moscos, or Mosquitos, and other tribes. That part of the coast called the Mosquito coast, and extending to cape Gracias-a-Dios, the congress at Colombia, in 1824, declared to ' belong to the territory of Colombia. part of that coast called Poyais (q. v.), containing a town of the same name, was creeted into a separate state by the Scotch adventurer, Mac Gregor,-Central Ameri-& contains intiquities of a very interesting name, which have been but imperfectly Sammed and described hitherto, and which indicate that the aboriginal inhabitnasor the country had even attained a very respectable profesency in the knowledge of the arts of life. Near the village of Paleaque are the times of what was once a cay el severar leagues in cuentiference Remains of temples, altars, and ornameneal stones, statues of demes, and other works of colpture, are permanent proofs of as former amportance. Take remains are found near Ocosongo, in the same part of Central America, A circus, and several some pyremids, in the valley of Copan, in Thousands, are better known than the rums of Palenque and Ocosingo. Vestiges of the city of Unitlan, before mentioned, of Patmaint and Mixeo, and of many fortresses and eastles in the province of Quezab nango, are mentioned by Juarros and other authors.-This country has attracted attention incidentally of late, owing to its geographical position, and the hope entertained by many of seeing a canal cut across the isthmus in some part of Central America, so as to unite the Pacific and Atlantic oceans by a navigable channel.

translated into Euglish by Mr. Baily-Statistical and Commercial History of Guatimala. (See also don Francia de Fuente's History of Guatimala, before and after the Spanish Conquest.)

CENTRAL FIRE. Many natural philosophers' have supposed a perpetual fire to exist in the centre of the earth, which they call central fire. In ancient times, oleanoes and other similar phenomena on the interior of the earth was impossible, the pilluse was used to express the interior warmth of the earth. To this central warmth Mairun ascribes a great part of the warmth on the surface of the earth. To a certain depth, there appears to be a fixed temperature in the interior of the earth, which probably arises from the penetrating heat of the sun. At least experiments show that in hot climates the interior of the earth is warmer than m cold ones. In Siberia, for instance, some workmen, having penetrated 80 feet-in digging a well, found the earth frozen even at that depth. Interesting informanon on this subject may be found in Biot's Astronomic Physique (2d ed., Paris, 1810), in the 2d vol. 15th chap. De la Tempérasure de la Terre.

CENTRAL FORCES; those forces by the cooperation of which circular motion is produced; that is, the centripetal and entrifugal forces. Many natural plulosophers denyshe existence of the latter, and assert it to be a mere mathematical idea. They say, a body, once put in motion, continues its motion in the same direction, and with the same velocity, without the interposition of a new power, on account of its inertia. Now the heavenly bodies were impelled, in the beginning, by the Greator, with an almighty power, and would be obliged, by their inertia, to go on eternally in one direction, and with the same velocity, if they were not attracted, m all points of their motion, towards a point out of this direction, by which a circular motion is produced. Of the first moving force, there is now no longer any That power by which the heavenly bodies are drawn towards points out of their recilinear path, is called the centripetal force. This power would put the heavenly body in motion if it were at rest; as it finds it already in motion, it changes its direction at every point. The rase is quite different with the centrifugal force. This appears to be merely the re-

It has been well described by a native, suit of the inertia of the body, or rather Domingo Juarros, whose account has been, of the motion which, having been once given to the body, is continued by means of this inertia. (See Circular Motion.)

CENTRAL MOTION. (See Circular Mo-

tion.)

CENTRE, LE (French; signifying the centre). In the French chamber of deputies, the seats are ranged in a semicircle in: front of the president, and deave only a narrow passage in the centre. The ministers themselves do not sit, as in England, were explained by it. At a later period, among the deputies, but in the front seat, when it was understood that such a fire son the left side of the centre. In England, the ministry is the centre of the majority, and all who do not vote with it. however different their views, unite in the opposition. In France, the two chief parties, one of which is attached to the old, the other to the new system of things, are opposed to each other independently of the ministers, and thus enable the ministry to maintain itself, as has been the case till very lately, without belonging decidedly to either party. The ministry bestows many offices on the condition that the officers shall always vote with it. In the I reach chamber of deputies, the adherents of the ministry chiefly sit near their leaders, on the seats in the centre (le centre). Here are to be found, therefore, the prefeets, state-attorneys, and other officers of the government, who, for the sake of office, support all the propositions of the ministers. They are joined by those who, like the Doctrinaires (q. v.), under the mmstry of Decazes, keep the centre, independently of the two chief parties, and , support the ministers from conviction. (During the ministry of Villèle, the Doctrinaires went over almost wholly to the side of the opposition.) But private opinion, and the circumstances by which it is influenced, offen operate so powerfully, that parties even appear in the centre. is itself divided into a right and left side. The members of the late ministry, preeeding that of prince Polignac, belonged chiefly to the moderate party.—In England, the members of the parliament also. sit on different sides, according to their party.-In the U. States of North America, the seats are decided by lot, in both houses, and thus the members of all partice are distributed all over the house.

CENTRIFUGAL FORCE, in astronomy, is the force by reason of which the heavenly bodies, in their revolutions, tend to fly off from the centre. The circular motion is said to be caused by the perpenual conflict of the centrifugal and centripetal

VOL III.

CENTRIPETAL FORCE. (See Central

CENTURIES OF MAGDEBURG. The first. comprehensive work of the Protestants on the history of the Christian church was so called, because it was divided into centuries, each volume containing a hundred years, and was first written at Magdeburg. Matthias Flacius (q. v.) formed the plan of it in 1552, in order to prove year, and the trees yield two crops of frust the agreement of the Lutheran doctrine, annually. A great part of the soil is dewith that of the primitive Christians, and the difference between the latter and that of the Catholics. Judex, Basilius Faber, Andreas Corvmus, and Thomas Holzhuter, were, after Flacius, the chief writers and editors. Some Lutheran princes and nobles patronised u, and many learned men assisted in the work, which was drawn, with great care and fidelity, from the original sources, compiled with sound judgment, and written in Latin. It was continued by the centuriatores (as the editors were called) only to 1300. It was published at Bale, from 1559 to 1574, in 13 vols. fol., at great expense. A good modern edition, by Baumgarten and Semler, which reaches, however, only to the year 500, appeared at Nuremburg, from 1757 to 1765, in 6 vols. 4to. A good abridgment was pre-pared by Lucas Osander (Tübingen, 1592-1604, 9 wol., 4to.), of which the Tubingen edition, 1607 and 1608 (usually m four thick vols. 4to.), comprehends also the period from the 14th to the 16th century. The Catholics finding themselves attacked in this alarming way, and confinted by matters of fact, Baronius (q. v.) wrote his Annal-, in opposition to the , Centuria.

CENTURY (Latin centuria); a division of 100 men. This kind of division was very common with the Romans, and was used, in general, to denote a particular body, although this might not comain exactly 100 men. Thus continues, in the army, were the companies into which the Roman legions were divided. This name was also given to the divisions of the six classes of the people, introduced by Ser-The first class contained vius Tullius. 80, to which were added the 18 centuries \* of the knights; the three following classes had each 20 centuries, the fifth 30, and the sixth only I century. The people is voted in the public elections by centuries. "(See Census.)

CEPHALONIA, or CEPALONIA; the large-t of the islands in the Ionian sea, well of the Morea, at the entrance of the golfo di Patrasso, or gulf of Lepanto, about 40

miles in length, and from 10 to 20 in breadth; lon. 20° 40' to 21° 18' E.; lat. 38° to 38° 28' N.; square miles 340, with 63,200 inhabitants, who own 400 vessels The island has 203 of different kinds. towns and villages, three ports, and excellent anchoring places and bays. The cllmate is warm and delightful, the landscape. is adorned with flowers during the whole voted to the production of raisms, currants, wine, oil, citrons, melons, pome-The raisins ar. Joh. Wigand, Matth. granates' and cotton. preferred to those of any other of the Grecian islands, and even to those of the Mored. About 2500 tons are produced annually. Between 25 and 30,000 casks of oil, and 50,000 of wine, 5 or 6,000,000 pounds of currants, and 100,000 pounds of cotton, are likewise obtained yearly Silks, medicinal herbs, oranges and lemons are also raised. The system of agriculture adopted by the great land owners requires that a large proportion of the gram and meat consumed in the island should be imported from the Morea. The island is subject to frequent earthquakes. Cephaloma belonged to the Venetians until 1797, when the French took possession of it Since 1815, it has belonged to the repulhe of the united Ionian islands. (q. v.) (See Namer's Statistical Account of the Island of Cefalonia, London, 1824.)—The ancier name of the island was Cephallenia, from the mythological Cephalus, husband of Procus. It was tributary to Thebes, the Wacedoman and the Ætolgus, till the Romans took it. In the time of Thucydedes, it had four cities; Same, Prone, Cra-

nn and Pale. Strabo only knew of two. Creusus; the son of Creusus; according to some, the son of Deionens, king of Phoen, and of Domede. He was the husband of Process. Shortly after his marriage, Aurora carried off the beautiful youth while he was hunting on mount Hymetus. He refused the love of the goddes, who induced him to put the virtue of his wife to a trial which it could not withstand. Process, in return, tempted him likewise, and he yielded also. Learning their mutual weakness, they became reconciled. But Procris subsequently became scalous of her husband, and concealed herself in a wood to watch him, , He mistook her, among the leaves, for a wild animal, and killed her. On this, he was banished from Greece by the court of Arcopagus, or, as some relate, killed himself with the sume dart which had

destroyed Procris.

CERACCHI, Joseph, born at Rome, was ductions of agriculture, also the festivals an eminent statuary, when the revolution of Ceres. in his native city induced him to give up was obliged to leave Rome, and went to Paris, where he was employed in making a bust of the first consul. Nevertheless, he joined the young French artists whom he had known at Rome, and whose ardent republican opinions coincided with his own, in a conspiracy against Bonaof his country. In October, 1800, he was arrested at the opera, with Arena, Damerville and Topino Lebrum. Before the tribunal, he answered only in monosyllables to the questions put to him. He was sentenced to death, together with his accomplices, and ascended the scaffold, Feb. 1801, with great firmness. The death of his disciple, and almost rival, of Canova, was a great loss to sculpture.

CERBERUS; a three-headed dog, with makes for hair, the offspring of Echidna by Typhon, the most terrible of the giants, that aftempted to storm heaven. At his mrk, hell trembled, and, when he got loose from his hundred chains, even the Furies could not tame him. He watched the entrance of Tartarus, or the regions of the dead, and fawned on those who ntered, but seized and devoured those who attempted to return. Hercules only subdued him. Thus says the Greek my-In the article Gemetery, the thology. reader will find that it was customary, among the Egyptians, after a corpse had been solemnly buried, to bid farewell to the deceased three times, with a loud voice. To express the circumstance that the deceased had been honored with the rates of burial and the lamentations of \* his friends, they represented, in the legend imprinted on the mummy, or engraved on the tomb, the figure of the norse of the Nile, which the Greeks mistook for a dog, and represented it with three heads, in order to express the three cries or farewells. The Egyptians called this hieroglyphic oms, and the Greeks erber, from the Egyptian ceriber, a word that means the cry of the tomb. It is natural, therefore, to suppose the Egyptian oms the basis of the Greek mythos of Cerborus. (See page 148 in Lectures on Hieroglyphics and Egyptian Intiquities, by the marquis Spineto, London, 1829, 8vo.)

CEREALIA (from Ceres, the goddess of the fields and of fruits) signified the pro-

CEREMONIAL OF THE EUROPEAN POWthe practice of his art, and engage in polizas. One of the many ridiculous usages
tics. In 1799, he was among the warmest
and pompous nullities, of which such a
partisans of the new republic. On the
number have arisen in Europe, principally. restablishment of the papal authority, he from confounding the interests and honor was obliged to leave Rome, and went to of the person of the monarch with the interests and honor of the nation, is the subject of this article; which has given rise to much war and confusion, and thrown many obstacles in the way of peace. After the thirty years' war, a war of wits, of equal length, was carried on parte, in whom he saw only the oppressor among the ambassadors, on the subject of ctiquette. It is evident that no independent state can actually have precedence of another; but, as the weaker seek the protection and friendship of the more power, This ful, there arises a priority of rank. has occasioned the gradual establishment of dignities, rank, and acts of respect to states, their rulers and representatives, by which means (in contradistinction to the internal etiquetto of a state) an interpational ceremonial has been formed, to the observance of which far more consideration is often paid than to the fulfilment of the most sacred contracts. Louis XIV carried this folly further, perhaps, than any one before or after him. To this international ceremonial belong, 1. Titles of rulers. Accident made the imperial and regal titles the laghest, and thus conferred advantages apart from the power of the princes. After Charleniagne, the Roman emperors were considered as the sovereigns of Christendom, maintained the highest rank, and even asserted the de-pendence of the kings on themselves. For this reason, several kings, in the middle ages, to demonstrate their independence, likewise gave their crowns the title of imperial. England, for example, in all. its public acts, is still styled the inperial, crown. The kings of France received from the Turks and Africans the title empereur de Prance. In progress of time. the kings were less willing to concede to the imperial title, of itself, superiority to the royal. 2. Acknowledgment of the titles and rank of rulers. Formerly, the popes and emperors arrogated the right of granting these dignities; but the principle was afterwards established, that every people could grant to its rulers, at pleasure, a title, the recognition of which rests on' the pleasure of other powers, and on treaties. Some titles were, therefore, never recognised, or not till after the lapse of " considerable time. This was the rase; with the royal title of Prussia, the impe-.

rial title of Russia, the new titles of German princes, &cc. 3. Marks of respect conformable to the rank and titles of sovereigns. To the royal prerogatives, so called (which, however, were conceded to various states which were neither kingdoms nor empires, such as Venice, the Netherlands, Switzerland, the electorates), pertained the right of sending ambassa-, dors of the first class, &c. In connexion with this, there is a much contested point, viz. that of precedence or priority of rank, i. e. of the right of assuming the more honorable station on any occasion, either personally, at meetings of the princes themselves, or of their ambassadors, at formal assemblies, &c., or by writing, as in the form and signature of state papers. There is never a want of grounds for supporting a claim to precedence. As the councils, in the middle ages, afforded the most frequent occasion of such controversies, the popes often interfered. several arrangements of the rank of the European powers, which emanated from the popes, the principal is the one promulgated in 1504, by Julius II, through his master of ceremonies, Paris de Crassis, in which the European nations followed each other in this order:-1. the Roman emperor (emperor of Germany); 2. the king of Rome; 3. the king of France; 1. the king of Spain; 5. of Arragon; 6. of Portugal; 7. of England; 8. of Sied, 9. of Scotland; 10. of Hungary; 11. of Navarre; 12. of Cyprus; 13. of Bohema; 14. of Poland; 15. of Denmark; 16. republic of Vennce; 17. duke of Bretagne. 18. duke of Burgundy; 19. electer of Bavaria; 20. of Saxony; 21. of Brandenburg; 22. archduke of Austria; 23. duke of Savoy; 24. grand-duke of Florence; 25. duke of Milan; 26. duke of Bavura; 27. of Logame. This order of rank was not, indeed, universally received; but it contained a fruitful germ of future quarrels; some states, which were benefited by the arrangement, insisting upon its sons, refusing to acknowledge it. To sup-, port their claims for precedence, the candidates sometimes relied on the length of time which had elapsed since their famulies became independent, or since the introduction of Christianity into their dominions; sometimes on the form of goverament, the number of crowns, the titles, achievements, extent of possessions, &c., pertaining to each. But no definite rules have been established, by which states are designated as being of the first, second, third, fourth, &c. rank. At the congress

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of Vienna, a discussion took place respecting the settling of the rank of the European powers, and its inseparable con sequences; and the commission appointed for the purpose by the eight powers, who signed the peace of Paris, made in their scheme a division of the powers into three classes. But, as opinions were by noof the plenipotentiaries voting for three classes, Portugal and Spain for two, and lord · Castlereagh entirely rejecting the principle of classification, as the source of constant difficulties, the question respecting the rank of the powers was suffered to rest, and the ambassadors of the crowned heads were merely divided into three classes. (See Ministers, Foreign.) Rulers of equal dignity, when they make visits, concede to each other, the precedence at . home: in other cases, where the precedence is not settled, they or their ambassadors take turns, till a compromise is effected in some way.-Many states claim not a precedence, but merely an equality. But, if neither can be obtained, there are several means of avoiding the scandalous scenes that formerly so often occurred The ruler either comes incognito, or sends an ambassador of different rank from his with whom he contests the precedence; or the rulers or their ambassacors do not appear on public occasions; or, if they do, h is with a reservation respecting their dignity. In treaties between two powers, two copies are made, and each is signed by only one part; or, if both sign, each party receives the copy in which it holds the place of honor. According to the above-mentioned resolution respecting the relative rank of ambassadors, which forms the 17th affix to the final act of the congress of Vienna, the order to be observed by the ambas-adors in signing public papers or treaties between powers, in respect to which the rule of alternate precedence exists, shall be determined by lot-In England and France, far less ceremoadoption, and others, from opposite rea- ental is observed, in the official style, than in Germany,\* where forms and titles are. carried to an abound extent, and the cere-

\* The following is an instance of the degree of folly to winch the love of utles has been carned in , Germany We do not say that it was often carried to the extent, but the instance is too good to be omitted. A certain man of the name of Seeger, in the 17th century, had his likeness taken, and, according to the fashion of the period, was represented. sented standing under a crucifix. From his mouth proceeded the words Domine Jesu Chrute, amus me? and from the mouth of the Savior the following arswer Clarisame, nobilissime atque doctionme domine mag. Seeger, rector is holo Wittenberger vi-rierdissime atque dignissime, omnino ano te

monial words, which extend even to the pronouns by which the princes are designated, it is not possible to translate. Emperors and kings mutually style each other brother, while they call princes of test degree cousin. The German emperors formerly used the term thou in addressing other princes. The we, by which monarchs style themselves, is used either from an assumption of state, or from a feeling of modesty, on the supposition that I would sound despotical, while we seems to include the whole administration, &c.; but the first reason is the more probable.

CERES (with the Greeks, Demeter, or Dco.) She is particularly the goddess of the earth, or the productive and fruitful earth. She was distinguished, especially, as the inventress of agriculture (hence her attributes of blades and cars of corn), and also as the founder of civil society, who fixed the wandering savages to the soil, and thus softened their manners, gave them the rights of property, the protection of laws (hence her name Thesmophoros), and with these a love of country. These ideas are suitably expressed in the works of art. She was the daughter of Saturn and Rhea, born near Enna, in Sicily, which refers to the fruitfulness of that island. By Jupiter, her brother, she was mother of Proserpine. When her daughver was afterwards carried off by Pluio, Ceres resolved to wander over the whole earth, in the human shape, in scarch of her. She lighted her torch at the fires of Ætna, and mounted her chariot, drawn by dragons. But her endeavors were fruitless. Hecate merely informed her that she had heard the cries of the ravished maid. She arrived, at last, at Eleusis, where the hospitable Celeus received her. When she departed from his house, she permitted lum to consecrate to her, in that place, an . dar and temple, gave to his son Triptolemus her chariot drawn by dragons, and taught him the cultivation of wheat, that he might spread it over the whole earth, and distribute among men the gifts of the goddess. At length, the all-seeing eyes of the god of day discovered to her the residence of her beloved daughter, and, filled with anger, she demanded of Jupiter her restoration from hell. Jupiter granted her petition on condition that Proscrpine had eaten nothing in Pluto's realms. But she had, in fact, eaten part of a pomegranate. Ceres, therefore, obtained her request only so far as this, that her daughter was allowed to remain half the year in the upper world. After finding Proserpine, she

revoked the curse which she had pronounced upon the earth, and restored to ". it life and fertility. Jasion, to whom was attributed the introduction of agriculture. into Crete, was, by her, the father of Plutus, the god of riches. Jupiter, inflamed with jealousy, slew Jasion with a thunderbolt. All these circumstances refer to the invention and extending of agriculture. "Ceres has," says Hirt, "in the representations of her, the same lofty stature and the same matronly appearance as Juno; yet there is something milder in her. aspect than in that of the queen of the gods; her eye is less widely opened, and softer, her forehead lower, and, instead of the high duadem, her hair is bound with a light wreath or a simple band." She has m her hand a torch, often a sickle, a horn of plenty, or a wreath. Her festivals in Rome were called the Cerealian; in Greece, (Sec Thesmophorian and Eleusinian. Egyptian Mythology.)—Concerning the planet of this name, see Planets.

CEREUS, NIGHT-BLOOMING. (See Cac-

tus.)

Cerroo (anciently Cythera), an island in the Motherranean, separated from the Morea by a narrow strait, and belonging to the Ionian republic of the Seven Islands; Ion. 23° E.; lat. 36° 28'.N.; population, 8 or 10,000; sq. m. 95. It is dry and mountainous, and produces neither corn, wine, nor oil, sufficient for the inhabitants; yet some of the valleys are fertile: sheep, hares, qualls, turtles and falcons are abundant. It was anciently sacred to Venus.

CERIGO OF KUPSULI (anciently Cythera), a town on the west coast of the island of Cerigo, defended by a castle, situated on a sharp rock, surrounded by the sea, with a small harbor: lon. 22° 54' E.; lat. 36° 28° N.; pop. 1,200. It is the see of a Greek bishop.

CREINTHUS. (See Gnostics and Millen-

nium.)

CERIUM, 3 rare metal, was discovered in 1803, by M. M. Hisinger and Berzelius, in a Swedish mineral, known by the name of cerite. Dr. Thomson has since found it, to the extent of 34 per cent., in a mineral from Greenland, called allanite. The properties of cerium are, in a great

measure, unknown. It is a brittle, white metal, which resists the action of nitricbut is dissolved by nitro-muriatic acid. Cerquozzi, Michael Angelo; a Roman

painter of the 17th century, who received the surname delle battaglie (battle painter), and, at a later period, that of delle bamboes ciate, because, in imitation of Peter Laar, he painted ludicrous scenes taken from

low life. In th low his: In the palace Spada, at Rome, is a picture representing Masaniello among the Lazzaroni, painted by him. He was born at Rome, in 1602, and died in 1660.

CERTIORARI, in law; a writ, the purport of which is to remove convictions, orders or proceedings before magistrates, indictments, and records in civil actions before judgment, and, under special circumstances, after judgment, from inferior courts into the courts above, with a view' that the party may have justice done to him, or that the superior court may see whether the justices or court below, before which the proceedings have taken place previously to the certiorari being obtained, have kept within the limits of their jurisdiction. This writ, from the moment of its delivery to the judges of the court below, or magistrate, suspends their power, and any subsequent proceedings by them are void and coram non judice. Although the writ of cerliorari removethe record from the inferior court into the court above, yet the court above does not take up the cause where the proceedings stopped, but begin- de novo.

CERUSE, or white lead, is an oxyde of lead, saturated with carbonic acid, and is prepared as an article of commerce, by the action of acetic acid on the metal. Plates of lead, being exposed to the vaporarising from boiling vinegar, are oxydized by the action of the air and the ailimity of the acid. To obtain it in large quantities, plates of lead, about 3 feet long, 6 inches broad, and I line thick, are rolled up in such a manner, that a space of half an inch or an inch is left between each roll. These rolls are fixed, perpendicularly, in arthen vessels, which, at the bottom, con-tain strong vinegar. The latter, however, must not touch the plates; and, to preventhis, some little hars are placed over it, in the form of a cross. The vessels are then covered with plates of lead, and, being placed horizontally in tan or horse-dung, , are exposed to a gentle heat. The vinegar now rises in vapors, which settle on the surfaces of the lead plates, penetrate them, and dissolve a great portion of the metal. In the space of from 3 to 6 weeks, the vapors of the acetic acid become saturated with lead, and change the latter into a whitish substance, which, after some time, is scraped off the plates, unrolled for this purpose. The plates are then rolled up again, and the same process is repeated. Ceruse is extensively used in the manufacture of oil paints, and, for this purpose, it is reduced to a fine powder. The

pounding and bruising, however, are extremely injurious to the health. The dust, if swallowed, causes a dangerous disease, called the painter's colic. Mr. Ward, an Englishman, invented a machine to guard against its pernicious effects. Much of the ceruse which is sold in the shops is adulterated by a mixture of chalk.

CERUTTI, Giuseppe Antonio Joachimo; born at Turin, June 13th, 1738, one of the last members of the order of the Jesuits, (previously to its dissolution in 1773), and one of their most eminent professors in the college at Lyons. His Apology for the Jesuts attracted much attention. He had already published two discourses upon the means of preventing ducks, and on the reasons why modern republics have not reached the splendor of the ancient. The last received the prize of the academy of Dyon. The Apology for the Jesuits gained him the favor of the dauphin. He was at Paris when the revolution broke out, in 1769. His principles, and, per haps, a desire of revenging the humiliations which he had experienced as a defender of the Jesuits, made him one of the most zealous supporters of the new order of things. He was intimately connected with Mirabeau, and labored much for bin-He also published several pumphlets, among which was a Mimoire sur la Necessile des Contributions patriotiques. 1791, he was a member of the logislative assembly. Some time after, he delivered, in the church of St. Eustache, a funeral discourse upon Mirabeau. Exhausted by his zealous evertions, he died Feb.2, 1792 The city of Paris called a street after his

CERVANTES SAAVEDRA, Miguel de, one of the greatest writers of modern times, was probably born at Alcala de Henares, an 1547. His parents removed from this place to Madrid, when he was about seven years old. Their limited means made it desirable that he should fix on some profg-sional study; but he followed his irresistible inclination to poetry, which his master, Juan Lopez, encouraged Ulegies, bullads, somets, and a pastoral, Filena, were the first productions of his poetical genius. Poverty compelled him to quit his country, at the age of 22, to seek maintenance elsewhere. He went to Italy, where he became page to the cardinal Guilio Aquaviva, in Rome. In 1570, he served under the papal commander, M. A. Colonna, in the war against the Turks and African corsairs, with distinguished courage. In the battle of Le. panto, he lost his left hand. After this, he

joined the troops at Naples, in the service, applause, in which, at a later period, the of the Spanish king. In 1575, returning whole of Europe joined. Cervantes true to his country, he was taken by the corsuir Arnaut Mami, and sold in Algiers as a slave. He remained in slavery for seven' notwithstanding its prosaic purpose and vears. Servitude, far from subduing his mind, served to strengthen his faculties. Vincente de los Rios and M. F. Navargete, his chief biographers, relate the bold but most truly romantic spirit. The extraorunsuccessful plans which he formed to obtain his freedom; but, as the only information we have of that period of his life is from his own novel (the Prisoner), of which we cannot positively say that it relates merely the facts of his imprisonment, \* we cannot determine, with great accuracy, his adventures in Barbary. In 1580, his friends and relations at length ransomed him. At the beginning of the following year, he arrived in Spain, and from this time lived in seclusion, entirely devoted to the muses. It was natural to expect something uncommon from a man, who, with 'inexhaustible invention, great richness of imagination, Reen wit, and a happy humor, united a mature, penetrating and clear intellect, and great knowledge of real life, and mankind in general. But it rarely happens, that expectation is so much surpassed as was the case with Cervantes. He Began his new poetical career with the pastoral novel Galatea (1584), in which he celebrates his mistress. Soon after the publication of this, he mar! Being thus obliged to look out for more lucrative labor, he employed his poetical genius for the stage; and, in the course of ten years furnished about thirty dramas, amongst which his tragedy called .Vumancia is particularly valued. He was not so successful in another kind of drama, particularly favored by the Spaniards, a tangled mixture of intrigues and adventures; and this was, doubtless, the cause why he was supplanted by Lope de Vega, who was particularly qualified for this kind of composition. He, cousequently, gave up the theatre, but, it seems, not without regret. From 1594 to 1599, celebrity as an author, he left the reputahe lived retired at Seville, where he held a little office. He did not appear again as an author till after the lapse of ten years, when he produced a work which has immortalized his name—Don Quirote. vantes had in view, by this work, to reform the taste and opinions of his countrymen. He wished to ridicule that adventurous heroism, with all its evil consequences, the source of which was the innumerable novels on knight-errantry. The beginning of the work was, at first, coldly received, but soon met with the greatest

poetical genius was nowhere so powerfully displayed as in his Don Quixote, which, its satirical aim, is full of genuine poetry. While it struggles against the prevailing false romance of the time, it displays the dinary good fortune of the work did not extend to the author. All his attempts to better his condition were unsuccessful, and he lived retired, with his genius and his poverty, and a modest though proud estimation of his merits. After an interval of some years, he again appeared before the public, in 1613, with Twelve Novels (which may be placed by the side of Boccaccio's), and his Journey to Parnassusan attempt to improve the taste of his nation. In 1615, he published 8 new dramas, with intermezzos, which however, were indifferently received. Envy and ill will, in the mean time, assailed him, and endeavored to deprive the neglected author of his literary fame; for which the delay of the continuation of Don Quixote afforded the pretext. An unknown writer published, under the name of Alonzo Fernandez de Avellaneda, a continuation of this work, full of abuse against Cervantes He felt the malice of the act prinfully, but revenged himself in a noble manner, by producing the communion of his Don Quixote (1615), the last of his works which appeared during his life time; for his novel Persiles and Sigismunda wapublished after his death. He found a faithful friend in the count of Lenos, and was thus saved from the death of Butler: but poverty, his constant companion through life, remained true to him till his last moments. He died at the age of 68, April 23, 1616, in Madrid, where he had resided during the last years of his life. He was buried without any ceremony, and not even a common tombstone marks the spot where he rests. In addition to hition of a man of a firm and noble character, clear-sighted to his own faults and those of others. Many of his works are translated; Don Quixote into all the languages of Europe.

CESAR. (See Casar.)

CESAROTTI, Melchior; one of the moscelebrated of the Italian literati of the 18th century; born at Padua, in 1730, of a noble family. He devoted himself to the belles-lettres, and was soon chosen professor of rhetoric in the seminary in which he was educated. He translated three

de César, and Mahomet. In 1762, he went to Venice, where he translated Ossian into Italian, and was, in 1768, appointed profersor of the Greek and Hebrew languages in the university of Padua. Here he published his translation of Demosthenes and of Homer, and his course of Grock literature. After the establishment of the republican After the establishment of the reproduction of the stability of the existing authorities, to write an Essay site Gibrultar, with 7400 inhabitants. It on Studies. In this, he made suggestions for the improvement of education. 1807 appeared his poem called *Pronea* possessed themselves of this city in 1415. (Providence), in praise of his benefactor, With Portugal, it was included, in 1570, in Napoleon. In spite of his advanced age, he subsequently occupied himself with an edition of all his works, which he had commenced in 1800; but his death, in 1808, prevented the completion of this Cesarotti was a man of great enterprise. talents and genius. His prose is animated and powerful, but he indulges too much in innovations, particularly Gallicisms: and cannot, therefore, compete with such writers as Machiavelli, Galileo, &c. The translation of Ossian is considered his best poetical production, and Alfieri praises its beautiful versification. A complete edition of Cesarotti's works was published by his friend and successor, Giuseppe Barbien (Pisa, 1805 et seq., 30 vols.).

CESTUS (Gr. A2070s); a girdle worn by Venus, endowed with the power of exeit-. ing love towards the wearer. The following is Pope's translation of Homer's de-

scription of u:-

In it was every art and every charin Town the wisest, and the coldest warm-Fond love, the gentle vow, the gay desire The land decent, the still-reviving fire. Persuasive speech, and more persuesive sigh-Silence that spoke, and eloquence of eyes,

Forcellini says. Fingunt poeta, intextas habere cupiditates, voluptates, delicius, illecebras. suspiria, desideria, risus, jocos, blanda verba, gaudia, jurgia, et hujusmodi, quibus amatorum vita constat. This beautiful in his description of the gardle of Aranda.

(Sec Phoreus.) CETO.

CETTE (lat. 43° 24' N.; lon. 3° 47' E.); a town with 7000 inhabitants, in what was formerly Languedoc, now in the department of the Herault, upon a peninsula, between the Mediterranean and lake Thau, into which the great canal of Languedoc enters. The port, which is safe, and has been very much deepened, is guarded by the fort St. Pierre and St. Louis. Cette is the orincipal place of export for the productions of Languedoc. Its commerce

tragedies of Voltaire-Semiramis, La Mort in woollen, cotton and silk goods, leather, wine, salt, oil, verdigris, soda, pilchards, tobacco, soup, &c., is considerable. It has, likewise, some sugar refineries and silk manufactories, and a school for navigation. In the neighboring lagoons, 500,000 cwt. salt are made annually.

GEUTA (anciently Septa); a city on the African coast of the Mediterraneau, in the is the seat of a bishop. It has a strong fort. The harbor is bad. The Portuguese the Spanish monarchy, by Philip II, and remained under the Spanish government after the revolution of 1640. peace of 1668, Portugal ceded it to Spain Centa is one of those Spanish presidios, which are used only for commerce, and as places of transportation for exiles or criminals. Lat. 35° 48′ N.; Ion. 5° 11′ W

CEVA, Thomas; born at Milan, in 1648. Lessing says, that this Italian Jesuit, who died in 1737, was as great a mathematician as poet; and truly a poet, not merely a rhymer, as appears from his Latin poem, the Puer Jesus, which he consider ed as a comic epopee, rather than as a true epic poem. He published several excellent mathematical works; for instance, one on the division of angles, and Opuscido Mathematica (Milan, 1699). He also wrote several biographies: as that of the Italian poet Lemene, with judicious remarks upor

poetry.

CEVALLOS; don Pettro; a Spanish minister, of an ancient family of Old Castile: born 1764, at Santander; studied at Valla- dolid. was a long time secretary of legation at Lisbon; married a relation of the Prince of Peace (see Godoy); was made minister of foreign affairs, and discharged the duties of this office with prudence and saga-But when the schemes of Napoleon began to throw the court of Madrid into confusion, he took side with the prince of fiction has been happily imutated by Tasso, "Asturias, upon whom all the Spanish patriots, who desired the independence of their country, placed their hopes. He followed him to Bayonne, was a witness of the events that happened there, and accepted from Joseph Bonaparte the office of premier. Joseph thought, perhaps, that a man so generally popular would prove an important support to his cause. as soon as he arrived at Madrid, he declared himself against Joseph, and joined the Spanish junta; in their service he went to London, where he published a celebrated work on the affairs of Spain in

1808, particularly on the transactions at Bayonne, which contributed not a little to excite the general opposition of Europe to Napoleon's administration. During the the most important posts, and, on the re-turn of Ferdinand VII, was made first immister. Cevallos received permission, in acknowledgement of his toyalty, to choose a device for his family coat-ofarms; upon which he selected the motto "Pontifice ac rege æque defensis." soon after lost the favor of the king, by opposing his projected marriage with the princess of Portugal. He was removed. from the office of secretary, and sent on embassics to Naples and Vienna, but was recalled in 1820. He has since lived in retirement.

Cevennes, or Sevennes; a chain of mountains in the south of France, considered by some a branch of the Alps; by others, of the Pyrenecs. They are connected with both, and extend also to Auvergne. In the highest regions of these mountains, hardly any vegetation is to be perceived. The highest summuts are the Puy de Dome, 4960 feet high; the Cantal, 5964 feet, and two other elevations, above 6000 feet high. The lower range, which soldier of Louis, who was taken prisoner, is called the Garigues, produces almost nothing. 'The central mountains are more fertile, and are intersected by pleasunt valleys. The chestnut woods, the cultivation of silk, and various sorts of fruit, employ and support a large population. The lighest part of the mountains serves principally for pasturing sheep. Several kinds of factals are found here. These mountains have been distinguished as the theatre of a bloody civil war.—Ever since the 13th century, religious sects had been springing up in the Cevennes, which, irritated by the abuses of the Roman clergy, labored to restore the Christian religion to its prunitive purity. Traces of them at a very early period are found in this south- fearless every day. Several leaders arose ern extremity of France, under the name of the Poor Men of Lyons, the Albigenses, and the Waldenses. The crusades directed against them by the popes and the in-quisitorial ribunals had, their enemies imagmed, the effect of annihilating them; but great multitudes, in fact, still survived; and, when the Protestant religion extended itself in Switzerland, and particularly in Geneva, it would naturally find adherents, in this part of France, whom all the persecutions, down to the time of Henry IV, were insufficient to extirpate. From that time they were protected by the edict of But, when Louis XIV formed Nantes.

the insane resolution of repealing this act, in 1685, and bringing all his subjects, by force or persuasion, within the pale of the Catholic church, the quiet of the poor but Spanish war of independence, he occupied happy people of the Cevennes was broken. in upou, and a series of persecutions commenced, hardly distinguishable from those which the early 'Christians experienced from the Roman government, except that now the persecutors themselves were Christians. The peace of Ryswick, in 1697, afforded Louis XIV leisure to pursue, in carpest, this work of extermination.

Dragoons were sent out to second the preaching of the monks, and the tax-gatherers were instructed to exact a rigorous payment of taxes from all who were suspected of Protestantism. Children were torn from their parents to be educated in the Catholic faith, men who frequented houses of prayer were sent to the galleys, women were thrown into prison, and preachers were hanged. These measures. reducing the people to despair, brought on combined resistance and a violent war. Prophets arose, and prophetesses, who foretold the victory of the country people. Whoever fell into the hands of the dragoons was massacred, and every officer or suffered the same fate. The peasants attacked their torinentors, the tax-collectors, in the night, with no other dress than a shirt, to escape detection. (See Cami-sards.) The murder of the abbot Chaila, in 1703, who commanded the dragonades, as the attempts to produce conversion by the aid of dragoons were called, was the signal, it appears, for a most desperate contest. The forces of Louis were incapable of bringing it to a conclusion, as the cruzs of the mountains offered numerous places of refuge to the Protestants, and his troops were every moment in danger of being cut off, or of perishing by hunger The cuthusiasts grew more . and cold. among them, and Cavalier, at the age of 20 years (with whom Voltaire became personally acquainted), highly distinguished himself. Louis XIV was now placed in a very critical situation, because the war of the Spanish succession made it necessary for him to extend his forces on every side, for the protection of France, and the duke of Mariborough and the duke of Savoy, by promises, and by some small assistance, augmented the flame which was kindled in the south of France. In the diocese of Nimes, the fanatics, deter-. mined to recompense evil with evil, murdered 84 priests, and burned 200 churches;

of their number were broken upon the wheel, burned at the stake, or thrown into orison. At length, in 1704, after marshal Montrevel had exerted all his ability to no purpose, Louis recalled his best general, marshal Villars, from the army of. the Rhine, to give a new direction to the perilous state of affairs in the south of France. One of the leaders of the rebels had conceived the project of effecting a union with the duke of Savoy in Dauphiny. The whole country, from the seashore to the highest mountain-ridge, was \* more or less in their hands, and with the inhabitants, of Nimes, Montpellier, Oranges, Uzes, &c., agreements were made, · which secured them arms, brend, and oth-. er necessaries. They melted down a vast number of bells to make cannon, and Cavalier acted like an able general. The Catholic peasantry no longer dared to cultivate their fields, or to carry provisions into the cities. Such was the state of things when Villars arrived at Beaucaire, April 20, 1704, and at Nimes the 21st. He began with instituting the necessary inquiries in regard to the cause of the rebellion, the character of the people, and their inode of thinking. Then he proclaimed a general amnesty for all who would lay down their arms, and forthwith liberated every prisoner who promised to return to his allegi-By this mode of proceeding, he induced several bodies of the insurgents to lay down their arms; while, on the other hand, he threatened the obstunite with the severest punishment; and, to enforce his menaces, troops were sent out in every direction from a given point, where a body of forces was stationed to afford them assistance, and, if necessary, to meet the combined forces of the insurgents in the field. Every prisoner, taken in arms, was directly put to death, or hanged and broken on the wheel, in Alais, Nimes. or St. Hippolyte. Such was the success of Villars, that, on May 10, Cavelier regarded the cause of the Camisards as desperate, and made proposals for a treaty, which was concluded on condition that he should surrender himself with his followers, but · be permitted to leave the country with them. Villars had a personal interview with him in Nimes: the whole troop consisted of 1600 men, and, not far from Nimes, they were entertained by Villars with the greatest hospitality. The memoirs of Villars say their number was 1600: Voltaire speaks only of 800. On the 22d, the treaty was confirmed in Paris, and, at the same time, Cavalier was made colonel, with a

but, in the mean time, more than 40,000 pension of 1200 livres, and permission to appoint the officers of the regiment which he was to raise. It was the design of Louis, probably by the advice of Villars, in this way to prevent a company of brave soldiers from leaving the country, at the same time that he guarded against injury Villars now gave orders from them. that every gibbet and every scaffold should be torn down; but, just as he seemed to have completed his task, things took another turn. Cavalier had gone to Anglade, a neighboring place, to organize his regi-ment, when the peasants, instigated by his dicutement, and animated by their prophets, became again disorderly, and, without listening to Cavalier, who had hurried back, plunged into the adjacent forests. They would not hearken to his persuasions, nor to the commands of Villars, and obstinately declared that the king must restore the edict of Nantes; otherwise they had no security. At length, however, Villars succeeded, by his personal influence, and by cutting off their provisions, in bringing them to submission. They all entered the service of Predmont, and marched under Cavaher to Catalonia, where the whole regiment was destroyed in the battle of 'Almanza, in which Cavalier himself was severely wounded. Meanwhile, the civil war in France did not end with their departure. There were still factions, of which the one headed by a certain Roland was the most distinguished. But Villar, who confided more in kindness and management than in his strength, soughtto gain possession of their chiefs only by the former qualities. He succeeded, indeed, in capturing Roland, who was in love with a girl of the country, and the musket of a deigoon spared him the tortures of a public execution. Others surrendered themselves, trusting to the marshal's word, and the billets de sureté en blanche which he gave them, securing them and their friends from persecution, whether political or religious. Thus, by the end of Decemper, Villars had happily accomplished his difficult enterprise, and there were only a few remnants of the party, wandering in the highest regions of the mountains. But, the next year, marshal Berwick, after their audacious project to seize him at Nimes had muscarried, totally suppressed them. 200 were executed, and many fled to foreign lands. From that time, a war of opinious has prevailed, to a greater or less degree, in the south of France, and, lately, since the restoration, has led to dreadful outrages in Nunes and other places. (See Huguenots, and France in 1819.)

CEYLON (Seilan); an island in the In- for the most part, too shallow in the dry dian ocean, containing 19,469 square miles. It is separated from the south-eastern extremity of the Coromandel coast by the mild and healthy. Although near the shallow strait of Manaar, but united to it by Adam's bridge—a remarkable chain of . sand-banks. Ceylon lies between the parallels of 5° 50' and 9° 50' N. lat., and between 79° 20' and 81° 50' E. lon. For the first certain information relating to this 15 minutes. "land, which is considered as the cradle of the religion of Buddha, we are indebted besides these, about 20 different kinds of to the Portuguese Almeyda, who, in 1505, entered a port of Ceylon by accident, and was hospitably received by the natives. The Polaguese were induced to establish commercial settlements in the island, on account of the great quantity of cinnamon which it produced; but their cruelty, their avarice, and their fanancism, which they evinced in suppressing the religion of the natives, and endeavoring to convert them to Christianity by violence, made them so much abhorred, that the Cingalese, in 1603, assisted the Dutch in driving them out of the island. By the conquest of the principal Portuguese town, Colombo, the Dutch succeeded, in 1656, in expelling the Portuguese. But the gratitude of the natives, at their imagined deliverance, which had induced them to cede the most valuable districts to the Dutch, was soon changed into hatred. Bloody wars ensu-, ed, in which the Europeans were the vicfors, and forced their opponents to seek reflige in the interior of the island, where they remained independent. After Hol-and had been erected into the Batayan republic 18 the French, in 1795, the Engish took possession of this island, and, at the peace of Amiens, in 1802, it was formally ceded to them. In 1815, they subected the whole of it by the capture of the Cingalese king of Candy, and the conquest of his principal town. The island is subteet immediately to the crown. The captal is Colombo. Its coasts are flat and covered with rice-fields, interspersed with forests of cocoa-trees. The interior of the country is traversed by a chain of steep mountains, covered with wood, which divides the island into two almost equal parts, and the highest point of which is the famous Adam's peak (q. v.), or Hamaleel, 6680 feet high, on which the Cingalese and all the Hindoos worship the colossal , feetsteps of Adam, who according to their belief, was created there, and, according to the religion of Buddha, is Buddha himself. The island seems to consist of primitive rock. It has many rivers, few of which, however, are navigable, as they are,

season, and too dangerous in the rainy season. The climate is, on the whole, equator, the heat is more moderate than . on the continent, on account of the seabreezes. The monsoons give variety to The difference between the the climate. longest and shortest day, is not more than The island produces gold, silver, lead, tin, iron, quicksilver and salt; precious stones, among them the amethyst, rock crystal, topaz, garnet, ruby, sapphire, hyacinth, turquoise, &c., are brought down by the rivers, after heavy showers in the rainy season. The rich soil produces nearly every plant peculiar to India and the tropical countries. All the tropical fruits grow wild. Rice, tobacco, pepper, sugar, coffee, pisang, tamarinds, several species of palni, the palmyra-tree, chony, talipot or talpat-trees, with chormons leaves, of which a single one would cover from 15 to 20 people, hemp, die-stuffs, &c., are found here. The chief production, the cinnamon-tree, is pecuhar to the island. About 340,000 pounds of cinniquon are annually sent to England. The best and most prolific cinnamonwoods, generally called cinnamon-gardens. are situated on the coasts. The annual produce is about 400,000 points. thick forests, which are but seldom visited by men, contain numerous wild beastsherds of elephants (the hunting of which constitutes a favorite amusement of the Cingalese), ferocious wild boars, leopards, monkeys, jackals, &c. ' The island is also rich in tame animals, poultry, &c., and the shores abound in tish. The pearl fishery, on the western coast, in the bay of Condatchy, was formerly very prolific. inhabitants, whose number Colquhoun estimates at 6000 whites and 200,000 natires, but which, according to others, exceeds 2,000,000, are divided (exclusive of strangers settled there) into two principal nations, quite distinct from each other, namely, Weddus (10,000)—a rude people, living in the interior of the forests, without any social order, who neither attend to agriculture, nor the breeding of cattle, but depend on the produce of the chase for support-and the Cingalese, who have attained a certain degree of civilization, practise agriculture, work in iron and gold, weave cotton, and possess a written language. They are divided into certain castes, like the Hindoos, of which each has its separate laws, customs and dress, and , are of the religion of Buddha, which is distinguished for its mild spirit, and the

purity of its doctrine. Besides these chere are Hindoos and Moors. The possession of the port of Trincomalee is of much consequence to the British, it being the safest of all the ports in the East Indies. Bishop Heber says of Ceylon, that the country "might be one of the happiest, as it is the of the loveliest, spots in the universe, if some of the old Dutch laws were done away, among which, in my judgment, the most obnoxious are the monopoly of cinnamon, and the compulsory labor of the peasants on the high roads, and other species of correces." He mentions having heard that the number of Christians on the coast, and amongst the English settlements, does not fall short of half a million : very many of the e, undoubtedly, are merely nominally such. The church missionary society has four stations on the island. (For many other interesting facts, we must refer the reader to bishop Heber's Narrative of a Journey through the Upper Provinces of India, from Calcutta to Bomhay, 1824-1825, with Notes upon Ceylon, 2 vols., 8vo.; London, 1828; Philadelphia, 1820.)

CHABAN (François Louis Rone Mouchard), count of; born Aug. 1757; counsellor of state, under the emperor Napoleon, and, in 1813, intendant of finances in Hamburg, while this city was under the government of marshal Dayoust. Chaban partook in all the violent measures which the officers of the French government thought themselves authorized to adopt, after Napoleon had declared the department containing this city hors de la loi (out of the protection of the law), on account of an insurrection which had broken out there. Chahan is known principally on account of certain silver pieces, pointnally of the value of two marks, but, in reality, of less, and bearing a date of an earlier period that that at which they were actually made, and called by his name, because he ordered them to be comed out of the silver of the bank which the commencement of the siege of Hamburg by the allies. Chaban died in March, 1814, of an hospital-fever, to which he had purposely exposed himself, as he said, on account of grief at his disappointments. After his death, the requisitions of the military governor became still more oppressive.

CHABANON, a member of the French academy, was born at St. Domingo, in 1730, and died at Paris, July 10, 1792. For his deficiency in gennus, he made amends by diligence. He translated Pin-

dar and Theocritus, in 1771 et seq. hest works belong to a species of criticism which is characterized by learning and taste, and affords much instruction and amusement, although never aspiring to a lofty elevation. Among these are his Discours sur Pindare et la Poésie Lyrique (1769), and Observations sur la Musique 1779 and 1785, 2 vols.; his best work). His tragedies, comedics and academicul éloges are sensible, neat, elegant, but . cold.

CHABERT, Joseph Bernard, marquis of; a distinguished navigator, astronomer and geographer. He was born at Toulon, Feb. 28, 1724, and entered the marine in 1741. In 1746, he sailed to Acadia (Nova Scotia), with a French squadron. voyage made him sensible of the imperfection of all the charts of America, that had been attempted. Immediately on his return to Paris, he commenced the study of astronomy, and first introduced the naval officers of France to an acquaintance with a science of great importance to their honor, and often to their safety. In the war which continued till 1748, he obtained the cross of St. Louis. After peace was concluded, he presented to the government a plan for a voyage of observation in the North American seas, which was executed in 1750. (See the result in his astronomical and hydrographical work, entitled, Voyage sur les Côtes de l'Amérique Septentrionate, 1753, 4to.) In 1758, he was chosen a member of the academy, and formed the propect of a chart of the Med iterranean. "The commenced this work in , 1764. He was likewise made inspectorgeneral of the naval depots. While he held this office, the celebrated Mechain spent several years, under his direction, in reducing and arranging a great number of observations, which had been made by Climbert, as the foundation for a new atlas of the coasts of the Mediterranean. The American war interrupted the work, and called the brave Chahert to his post, where Dayoust had taken by force, shortly before the distinguished himself so highly, that, m 1781, he was made commander of a squadron. The revolution drove him to England, and he was received by doctor Maskelyne with great kindness. In 1800, he lost his sight, in consequence of his intense application to study, and, in 1802, returned to Paris, where Bonaparte assigned him a pension. In 1804, he was appointed a member of the board of longitude, and, in 1805, he presented to it a map of Greece, and a description of the coasts of that country. Notwithstanding his blindness, his powerful memory ena-

والمهير bled him to make additions to the stores of scientific facts. Lalande praises his accuracy in observations, his patience, his diligence, and his courage in overcoming every obstacle, in the highest terms. He died Dec. 2, 1805, of a lung fever.

CHABERT; a Frenchman, who attracted annch attention in London, in the autumn · of 1829, by swallowing several species of poison, and exposing himself to a great heat in the Argyle rooms, and in various other places, in presence of a large number of persons of respectability. He swallowed, in a manner which precluded the idea of deception, from 10 to 20 grains of phosphorus, and a teaspoonful of prussic acid, before a company including several medical gentlemen. The antidote which he used, he said, was extremely simple, and the newspapers stated that gentlemen of the London medical faculty had been treating with him for the purchase of his secret. Chabert exposed himself to the heat of an oven, from which he brought a thermometer standing at 380°; his pulse was then bearing 168 times in a minute. He called himself the *fire king*. (For a more minute account, we must refer the reader to the London papers of that fune.)

Chacabuco, Battle of; celebrated in the history of modern Chile. In the berinning of 1817, the Spannards were completely masters of Chile, having, in 1813, beaten Carreia, and compelled lings and others, his compatnots, to cross the mountains for safety. But, on the 12th of February, 1817, the troops of San Wartin, commanded by O'Higgins, gained a decisive gictory over the Spannards under Maroto, at Chacabuco, which, with that of Maypu, fought afterwards, gave independence to the country. (See Chile, O'Higgins, Maypu.)—Stevenson's S. Am., vol. iti. p. 131.

CHACTAWS. (See Choclaus.)

CHERONFA ( a place in Broom, famous , for the battle fought there, 338 B. C., between Philip of Macedon and the confederated Greeks. (See Greece and Philip.)

CHAFALAYA: the western branch of the mouth of the Mississippi, which runs into '. St. Bernard's bay.

CHAGAING, OF CHAGONG: a town of . Birmah, on the west bank of the Irrawaddy, opposite to Ava, partly at the foot, and partly on the side of a hill, sometimes the residence of the king; lon. 96° E.; lat. 21° 56′ N. It stands very high, being built on the slope of several hills, the tops of which are covered with numerous temples, most of them ornamented with spires and gilded roofs, forming a beauti- "flourishing city in Bithynia, on the northvol. III.

remaining of the The houses are of timber, ful prospect. with tiled roofs. The town derives great riches from its quarries of beautiful white marble, and the manufacture of idols, These are chiefly statues of Boods or Gaudama, the deity of the country, and cross-legged on a pedestal. It is blasted

a mart for cotton, exported to China.

CHAILLOT; a village which is situated behind the Tuileries, and now included within the limits of Paris.

It is jornémented with splendid countries and gardens, affording delightful prospects of the Seine and the surrounding country. On the extremity of the quai Billy, opposite to the celebrated bridge of Jena (now the bridge of the military school), is the unfinished palace of the king of Rome. commenced by Napoleon at an enormous expense. The runs of this palace, on entering the city from the side of Versailles, afford a disagreeable prospect, and an unpleasant contrast with the beautiful architecture of the military school, immediately opposite told. The parish church is the sepulchre of the brave count Josias Rantzau, mar-hal of France, who was buried here in 1650. The nuns of the order of Sainte Marie de la visitation had a celebrated convent here, where persecuted grandeur often sought an asylum. Here died, in 1669, the queen Henrietta of France, daughter of king Henry IV, wife of Charles I king of Fingland, and her nacce, the prince-s Louisa, of the Bavarian palatinate, who, with the other nuns, used to make hay in the neighbormg fields.

Chars, in surveying, is a measure consisting of a certain number of links of non wire, serving to take the dimensions of fields, &c.

Chain. In nautical language, chains are strong links or plates of iron, the lower ends of which are belied through aship's side to the timbers. They are on the outside, and are used to contain the blocks called dead-eyes, by which the shrouds of the masts are extended .- Top chains are those which preserve the lower vards from falling, when, in tune of battle, the ropes are rendered incapable of service.

CHAIN-CABLE. (See Cable.) CHAIN-TIMBER; a timber of large dimensions, placed in the middle of a building, to give it strength.

CHAIN-WALES. (See Channels.) CHAISE, PERE DE LA. (See Lachaise

and Cemetery.) CHALCEDON (at present, the village Kadenki); under the Roman dominion, a

west point of Asia Minor, opposite Constaminople, and not far from the present Scutari. At this place, in the autumn of . 451, Marcian, the emperor of the East, held the fourth general council, for the purpose of destroying the ascendency of . the Monophysite doctrines (see Monophysites), obtained, in 449, by the influence of the Alexandrian patriarch Dioscuros, at the (so called) robber-synod at Ephesus; and to establish a creed of Christian faith, which, equally remote from the Nestonan and Monophysite doctrines, should satisfy all parties of orthodox Christians. emperor's commissioners took the lead, and after them came the legates of the Roman bishop Leo 1, who had endeayored to establish articles of faith without the aid of a council, but deemed it judicious to maintain his influence there, and take revenge for the excommunication pronounced against him by Dioscuros. council, which consisted of 600 bishops, mostly of the East, deposed Dioscures, and, after violent debates, adopted into their articles of faith, at the instigation of the Roman legate, the tenor of a missive of Leo to Flavian, the former patriarch of Constantinople, directed against Euryches, the founder of Monophysiusm, besides the confessions of faith of the general councils of Nice and Constantinople: also two synodal missives of the former patriarch, Cyril of Alexandria, condemning the Nestorian tenets. The articles of faith settled by them, declared the mother of Jesus the parent of God, and established, in opposition to the Monophysites, the belief of two natures in Christ, existing without mixture or change, without division or separation, so that, by the union of the two natures in one person and substance, their distinction is not destloyed, but the characteristics of each are retain-Besides this greed, the council promulgated 30 canons against the abases of the clergy, of which canons the 28th conecded to the patriarch of Cofistantinople man, to whom it merely gave precedence of rank; and thus the matter remained, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the Roman legates. Bloody rebellions in Pulestine and Egypt were the numediate consequences of the decrees of the council of Chalcedon against Dioscuros and the Monophysites; and not till after a long period of ecclesiastical contests, during which the Monophysites were entirely separated from the orthodox, and formed a distinct church, did the Chalcedon formula of faith obtain the authority which

it now has in the Catholic, Greek, and many Protestant churches.

CHALCEDONY; a mineral including several varieties, which have received distinct names in the arts. It occurs in small veins, or in cavities of other minerals, and appears to have been formed by the filtration of silicious matter.—1. The common chalcedony has a cloudy or milky appearance when held between the eye and the light. It is semitransparent, or only translucent in various degrees. Though sometimes nearly white, its more common color is gray, more or less shaded with blue, . eyellow, brown, green, &c. The surface is often rough or uneven. Its fracture is usually, even, though seldom smooth. It is usually contained in amygdaloid, porphyry, greenstone or basalt, or in the cavines of these rocks. It sometimes traverses them in veins. Sometimes it occurs m metallic venus, also in gramte and gners. Oberstein, in the palatinate of the Rhme, is one of the best localines. Fine specimens are found in the islands of Faroe. It is found, also, in Vicentino and Iceland, and in Trevascus mine, in Cornwall, in New South Shetland, in Nova Scotia, and in many parts of the U States. It receives a good polish, and is' much used for ring-stones, scals, &c.-2. Another of the principal varieties is carnehan. The prevailing color of this variviy is red; sometimes it has a tinge of yellow or brown, or is nearly white. Its colors, or their different shades, sometune - appear m -pot- or stripes, or gradually pass into each other. It is commonly -clintran-parent, sometimes only translicent. Its geological situation is similar to that of common chalcedony, which it often accompanies. The finest specimens, sometimes called *Oriental carnetian*, come from Cambay, Surat, &c. in India. It is obtained, also, from Arabia, Siberia, Sardima and Eurmann. It is found on lake Superior near Portage river, in Missour: at Herenlaneum, & c., in Massachusetts at equal rights and privileges with the Ro- Decried. It receives a good polish, and is much employed for seals, bracelets, &c. The ancients often engraved on carnelian. —3. Surdonyx-differs from carnelian in its color only, which is roddish-yellow, or nearly orange, sometimes with a tinge of brown. It often appears blood-red by transmitted light. It is found in Massa-chusetts, at Deerfield, in greenstone.

CHALDEA, in ancient geography; the southerly part of Babylonia, towards Arabia and the Persian gulf, lying west of the mouth of the Tigris and Euphrates, formerly a fertile country, now barren. The Chaldeeans were a Semitic tribe, and one congress of April 20, 1790, a peremptory of the most famous nations of Asia. They challenge of 35 jurgs is allowed in trials were the first people who worked in metals, and were not destitute of astronomical knowledge. They founded the Babylonian and Assyrian empires. Their name remained with the priesthood of the Babylonians, whose members were employed in the worship of the gods, in expounding their scriptures, prophesying, the practice of medicine, interpreting dreams, also in conjurations, magic, astrology, &c. They kept their knowledge secret from the people. None of their writings have been handed down to us. It is supposed that the Chaldwans , were originally called Kephenians, and lived on the Cancasus, and that they settled on the Persian gulf about 800 B. C. (Sec Babylonia.)

CHALDEAN CHRISTIANS. (See Sects, Syrian Christians, and Christians of St. Thomas.)

CHALK. (See Lime.)

CHALLENGE, to jurors, is an objection either to the whole panel or array, that is, the whole body of jurors returned, or to the polls, that is, to the jurors individually; and it is either peremptory, that is, without assigning any reason, or for cause assigned. A peremptory chalkinge is allowed to be made only by the party . cused, and not by the government, or prosecuting officer, and only in capital cases; and is said to be permitted on the ground that a man is liable to conceive a prejudice against another from his mere looks and appearance, for which he can give no reason; and such may be the case of the accused; and it is conceded in favor of life, that, in such case, he may exclude the juror without assigning any reason; and also on the ground that, by questioning a juror as to any objection to him, his the pusoner, who, to save himself from the effect of such prejudice, is permitted The ground on to have him rejected. which peremptory challenge is allowed, supposes the prisoner's life to be in danger, and he is not entitled to it if he pleads in bar or abatement; for the trial of these pleas does not decide on his life. He must, before making such challenge, plead "not guilty," or some plea, the trial of which decides on his life. Having pleaded such a plea, the accused might, by the common law, peremptorily challenge 35 jurors; but the statute of Henry VIII, c. 14, limited the number to 20, in felony, and the limitation is to this number in some of the U. States. By the act of

for treason, and 20 in those cases of felony mentioned in the statute. A challenge of the whole panel may be made, because the jury is illegally drawn or summoned, whereby it is not a legal jury; and a chal-denge of this description may be made by the government as well as by the prisoner. Challenge to the polls may be made both in civil and criminal suits for cause, as that the juror is an alien, not from the proper district, not duly qualified as a freeholder, not of suitable age, &c., or is near akm to one of the parties, is biased, has been guilty of felony, is interested, or is subject to any other exception, accordmg to the common principles of proceedmg, or the provisions of any statute on the subject. In court-martials, a prisoner who objects to either of the judges must assign his reasons. In other words, peremptory challenges are not allowed in these courts. The privilege of challenging here belongs equally to the prisoner and the prosecutor. The right of challenging the members of a court-martial prevails on the continent of Europe, as well as in England and Americal

Challenge to right a duel is punishable, in England, with fine and imprisonment. In several of the U. States, this offence is sobject to the additional punishment of mehgibility to any public office, either for hie or for a hunted term. (See Duel.)

CHALONS. There are two considerable cities of this name in France-Chaloussur-Saone and Chalons-ur-Marne. The latter is the most important. Anciently it was called Catalaunum. It has on the river Marie, and is the capital of the department of the Marne. It is 201 miles east of Paris; Ion. 4° 22' E.; lat. 48° 57' N.: population, 10,784. Before the revoprejudice may be thereby excited against slution, it was the seg of a fishop, and clifef place of the generality of Champagne. It has manufactures of coarse woollen cloth, as well built, and contains a Gothic cathedral, 10 churches, a public library of 30,000 volumes, a museum, a botame garden, and a cabinet of natural Atula, the Scourge of God, was history. here defeated by the Romans after an obstinate and sanguinary contest.

Chalotais, Louis Rene de Caradeue de la : attorney-general at the parliament of Rennes. He was born at Rennes, March 6, 1701, and died July 12, 1785. He is celebrated chiefly for the legal process against him, which accelerated the approach of the French revolution. By the force of his eloquence and the m-

dependence of his principles, Chalotais gained the esteem of the people, and, after the 60th year of his age, excited general attention by the attack which he commenced against the Jesuits. The commenced against the Jesuits. French court had given them permission to remain in the kingdom, but sought to weaken their influence. D'Ak mbert, Du-clos, Condillac, Mably, Montesquieu and Diderot, the friends of Chalotais, strove to effect the abolition of the order in France. But it was attacked with the greatest vio- lence in Chalotais' celebrated work, which first appeared in 1761, and has been frequently reprinted-Complex rendus des Constitutions des Jésuites : which he first read, in his official capacity, before the parliament of Rennes. His example was followed in the other parliaments, and the corsequence was a dissolution of the order. Chalota's was supported, in this process, by that have d which sof disbly are iids the abuse of power, and parneularly by the numerous Jansemsts in France, who had so long opposed the Jesuns. He was aided, also, by the mesohinon of the court, and the city of the other religious orders. In vica did Caveviae, who attempted, of first, to justing the reneal of the edict of Nantes, wine in defends of the Jesury, in this did Mepone, Griffet, and the regeneous Ceret of of their own party, plead the errices which they had rendered to there so of God and to the throne of Praces, on the \* brilliant thoughts which had been developed in their schools. The independent character of Chalotas soon gave his energies an opportunity of revenuent themselves, when a dispute arose between the court and the parhagent of Rennes, or account of the refusal of the latter to register bertain financial edicts which seemed to infringe the privileges of the duchy of Brotagne. After servett his country for 26 years. Chalotais was arrested with his son and five coun-ellers of the guliament, who favored his cause, and thrown into prison. He suffered this treatment as the supposed author of several anonymous letters to one of the ministry, in which the style of a person of the lowest class was imitated. The prisoner in vain protested his innocence in several memorials (1766 et seq.), seconded by the pen of Coltaire and the public voice. The commission appointed to examine him pubhished their proceedings, and condemned him before the regular forms of law had been all complied with. Calonne, the miffister who conducted the process, and the duke of Aiguillon, governor of the

province, were the personal enemies of the prisoner. The parliament of Rennes was dissolved, and a new one summoned, which assumed the right of judging in the case of Chalomis. But the proces-had scarcely commenced, when the greatest part of the judges refused to serve; the rest, 13 in number, were refused by the prisoner on account of their partiality to the side of the prosecution. The voice of the people at length prevailed. The remonstrances of the court, and of the duke of Choiseul, determined the king to put a stop to the proceedings. The praoners were batushed to Saintes. Chalo-tars was requested to resign his office, but The parliament of Rennehe refueed. desired the reinstatement of all its members. New pamphlets, in relation to the suit, appeared every day, and 150 distributors of them were imprisoned in the Beetre. The officers of government at length grew weary of burning the numerous publications, or, as it was said pubhely, of baroning the truth. From this tedicus presecution of the attorney-general, a new action arose. The parliament of Rennes commenced a process against the governor, the duke of Aiguillon. Louis AVI, the succeeding have, set the attorney at liberty. After 10 years of persecution, he was remstated in his office at Rennes The whole process against Chalotais wecharacterized by weakness as much as by tyriciny, and indicated the approaching rum of a despotism which had lost itenergy. In 1826, a Jesuit writer in Paris asselled the character of Chalotais anew A prosecution was commenced against him by the heirs of the accused, and he was bought in guilty.

Chanada, in multary language (generally derived from the Italian chiamare, to call), is a signal, either by beat of drum of sound of trampet, to obtain a conference, who many matter is to be proposed to the

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CHAMBIR. Forcellin defines camera can erched roof or ceiling; Herodotus uses the word sapion, to signify a covered wagon; Officied and Notker, two early German writers, use kammer to denote a vaulted chamber, the keeper of which, as early as the time of king Dagobert, was, called camerarius. The public treasury of the princes was called, in the 10th century, comera; and in German, down to the present period, those sciences, an acquantance with which is essential to the proper administration of the different departments of government, are called cameral-wissenschaften. Words derived from

the Latin term camera are common in modern European languages: thus camera in Italian; in French, chambre; in Fliglish, chamber; in German, kammer; in Spanish, camara; in Swedish, kamar. In many languages, chamber is used to designate a branch of government whose inembers assemble in a common apartment; thus we have the camera apostolica, in Rome; tamara de justicia, in Spain ; chambre des deputés, in France : kummergericht, in Germany, &c.-Chamber of a cannon, in artillery; that part of the bore of a cannon which receives the powder with which it is charged .- Chamber of a mortar; the space where the powder hes.-Chamber of a mine; the place where the charge of powder is lodged that is to be used for blowing up the works.—Chamber of a battery; a place sunk under ground to hold the powder, bombs, &c., so as to preserve them from rain or moisture.—Chamber of a lock is the space between the gates of a lock in a canal, in which the barge rises and sinks, so as to pass the lock.

CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES. (See Charte

Constitutionnelle.)

CHAMBER OF PLERS. (See Charte

Constitutionnelle.)

CHAMBER, IMPERIAL. The imperial chamber (in German, Reichskammergenicht) was a court of the German empire, established at Wetzlar, near the Rhine. It was instituted by the emperor Maximilnn 1, m 1495. In 1806, when the German empire was dissolved, this court, of course, expired. The imperial chamber had discourrent jurisdiction with the aulic council (q. v.) at Vienna, and waintended, among other things, to adjust the disputes between the different independent members of the German empire, and also such as arose between them and The intention of this exthe emperor. tublishment certainly was good, and its effect, at first, beneficial. But the immense mass of cases which came before the Germans, eventually occasioned the protraction of the processes to an interimmable length. By the conditions of the , peace of Westphalia, after the thirty years' war, particularly by the treaty of Osnaburg, in 1648, the imperial chamber was composed of a Catholic judge, 4 presidents, named by the emperor (2 Catholic and 2 Protestant), and 50 counsellors, 26 of whom were Catholics, and the rest Protestants. After that time, the mem-bers of the court were much reduced. The sentences were without appeal, but 5\*

were often powerless, because the different German princes frequently refused to allow them to be executed in their The history of the imperial territories. chamber affords another instance of the correctness of Napoleon's judgment in dissolving the fabric of the German empire, conformably to the demands of the

age.

CHAMBERLAIN; a court officer, originally employed, as the name indicates, cither to take charge of the private apartments of the king, or of the treasury, called, in the 10th century, camera. (See Chamber.) The golden key, which is worp by the chamberlains of the European courts on two small golden buttons (as well as the buttons themselves, when the key is omitted), indicates, also, the origin of the office. At present, their employment (when their office is not merely nominal) is to attend on the persons of the princes and their consorts. There is generally a chief or high chamberlain. This officer, in England, is called lord great chamberlain of England. His office is one of great antiquity and honor, being ranked as the sixth great office of the English crown. He dresses and undresses the king before and after the coronation. There exists, also, a lord chanberlain of the household, a ford chamberlam of the queen's household, &c. In fact, there are almost as many chamberlams as chambers.—Chamberlain of London is the officer who keeps the city money, which is laid up in a chamber of London, in Guildhall. He also presides over the affairs of masters and apprentices, makes free of the city, &c.

CHAMBERRY, OF CHAMBERI (anciently Cameria, Camerium, and Cameriacum); capital of Savoy, at the conflux of two small rivers, near the Iscie; Rd posis E. Lyons; Ion. 5° 55′ E.; lat. 45° 26′ N.; population, 11,991; houses, 1985. It is a bishop's see. It contains a cathedral, 2 parish churches, 14 convents, 4 hospitals, it, together with the national pedantry of • a college, and a public library. In its viemity are excellent baths, much frequented in summer. It is situated in a delightful valley, and is defended by a castle placed on an enumence. Its suburbs are large and elegant; all the he see have piazzas. It has considerable manufactures and distilleries.—At this place the emperor Sigis-, nund erected the earldom of Savoy into a dukedom, and it was once the residence of the prince; but, after the court was removed to Turin, it lost its splendor.

. CHAMBERS, Ephraim: a miscellaneous writer, and compiler of a popular diction-

ary of arts and sciences. He was a native of Milton, in Westmoreland, and was soducated at a school at Kendal, under the father of the celebrated hishop Watson. On leaving school, he was apprenticed to . J. Senex, a mathematical instrument and globe maker in London. Here he acquired such a taste for the study of science, and made so much proficiency in it, that he not only formed the design of compiling his famous Cyclopadia, but actually wrote some of the articles for it behind his master's counter. The first cultion of this work was published in 1728, in 2 vols, folio; and Chambers was soon after chosen F. R. S. Two subsequent editions, in 1738 and 1739, appeared previously to his death, which happened May 15, 1740. Several improved editions of the Cyclopaedia have been published, and it has served as the basis of many subsequent works. (See Rees, Northam.)

CHAMBLES. (See Houses of Legislature, and Charte Constitutionnelle. \"

CHAMBORD; a castle, park and village, with the surrounding territory, comprising 5000 acres of forest and 23 farms: the whole ground embrac ~ 11.000 acres. It is situated in the department of Loreand-Cher, near Biers. It was intended by the French nation as a present to the son of the mundered duke of Derry, the young duke of Bordeaux; but the conduct of the numstry in dus a line d. i not meet with the approbation of the public. The splendid eastle of Chambaid is sunated in the middle of a park, enclosed by walls extending eight leagues. It contams 440 rooms. 13 large staircases, and stalls for the reception of 1200 horses. It was built, in the Gothie style, by Primation, for Francis I, and completed under tirst sprung to life in France; and here Ling Stanislaus Leczarsky resided for mine years. In 1745, it was given by Louis XVto marshal Saxe, who died there in 1750. The emperor Napoleon gave the domainof Chambord to the prince of Wagrain (Berthier), and constituted it the principality of Wagram. When the widow of the marshal offered the estate for sale, a company was formed, which bought it for 1,542,000 francs, and gave it to the duke of Bordeaux in the name of the people of France, on the day of his baptism, May 1, 1821. Several lithographic prints of Chambord, with descriptions, were published by Engelmann. Paris, 1822; also a large lithograph by Isabey, the largest of the kind in France.

CHAMBRE ARDENTE (French; burning chamber)'; formerly, in France, a chamber in which state prisoners of high rank were tried by torch-light. The chamber was lung with black cloth. When Francis II, in the 16th century, established a court to try the Protestants, who wereusually condemned to be burnt, the people " called this court, likewise, chambre ordente, in allusion to its sentences.

CHAMBRE INTROUVABLE (French; the chamber not to be found); an appellation that was bestowed, in ridicule, on the French chamber of deputies, which met after the second restoration of Louis XVIII, forms coldness and anti-national ity: This appellation has been preserved The party opposed to the principles of the revolution were extravagant in their exultation, on account of their triumph; but this reaction fasted only from June 25, 1815, to Sept. 6, 1816. In the proclamation dated from Cambray, the king had already sought to quiet the nation in respect to various apprehensions, which may have contributed to the events of March, 1815. It was conceded that the 20veriment had, perhaps, been deficient, the ministry was to acquire more unity by means of a president; the report of the intended ree-tablishment of titles and fendal rights was declared unfounded, the purchasers of the national domains were once more assured of the inviolability of their property and a promise was made, that all classes of people should be chable to the offices of state, and even to face incachately connected with the court. After the second return of the king, prince Talleyrand was appointed president of the nameterial council. The other numsters were Louis, Pasquier, Louis XIV. Here Francis I endulzed his Gouvion St. Cvr. Jaucourt, the duke of inclination for gallantry; here the arts Richehen and Fouche. The chamber of deputies was dissolved, the number of deputies increased from 262 to 402, inters. mediate bodies of electors established for the choice of the members of the chamber of deputies, and the choice placed wholly in the hands of the richest persons of each department. Before the chambers actually convened, the scenes in the south of France, the massacre of the Mamelukeat Marseilles, of the Protestants at Nismes. and of marshal Brune at Avignon, showed what a savage spirit had broken loose. In August, the ministry was again changed. The duke of Richelieu became president; Decazes took Fouche's place,; Clarke, duke of Feltre, was made minister of war; Barbé-Marbois, Dubouchage and Corvetto took the places of Pasquier,

unpanished. A royal ordinance, indeed, of Nov. 21, commanded that the murderers of general Lagarde, and the authors of the other atrocities at Nismes, should be brought to trial; but of 18 persons accused, only two were actually tried. On the other hand, Ney atened with his life for his inconstancy, although it admitted of much extenuation, and notwithstanding the capitulation of Paris, which had declared a general annesty for all political crimes. On Oct. 7, the session of the chamber of deputies was opened: the choice of them had been guided by the same spirit which now prevailed in their proceedings. All the measures which scenied to favor a relapse to the old state of things, and which could serve as instruments of revenge and perscention, were adopted without discussion, and even denignded. This was the case with the laws of Nov. 9, 1815, respecting the punishment of seditions proclamations; of Dec. 30, respecting the restoration of the cours prevoleles : of Jan. 11, 1816, respecting the bunishment of the regicides: and of May 8, respecting the abolition of divorce. A host of subordinate officers, who had never taken an active part in public affairs, were removed from their comployments on the pretence of their catertaining revolutionary sentiments; and Clarke, the minister of war, acted altogether arbitrarily in the new organization of the army, degrading inenterious effieers and promoting others. The disadvantageous peace of Nov. 20, 1815, the great burden which, the foreign aimes timposed on the people, and the great scarcity which prevailed, augmented the disaffection thereby occasioned. Disturbances broke out at Grenoble, Toulouses and Lyons, which cost some hundreds of "im-guided peasants then lives, while their true authors remained undiscovered. The government became finally aware that they could no longer proceed in this course without risking a general eruption. The ministers Vaublanc and Barbe-Marbos were superseded by Laine and Dambray, and the mauster Decazes soon obtained a decisive influence. It being necessary for him to possess a majority in the chamber of deputies, the chamber was dissolved, Sept. 5, 1816, by an ordinance of the king, and the deputies, at the sume time, reduced to the number of 258. The law of Feb. 5, 1817, subsequently established new rules for elections, which, for a time, seemed to keep the two leading

Jaucoutt and Louis. The perpetrators: parties in a kind of equilibrium; but, as of the massacres in the south remained apprehensions were entertained that it unpunished. A royal ordinance, indeed, or Nov. 21, commanded that the murderers of general Lagarde, and the authors of the other atrocities at Nisnes, should

CHAMELEON (chameleo, Dayd.); a genus of reptiles belonging to the saurian or lizard-like order, a native of parts of Asia and Africa. The very remarkable power which these animals possess of changing their color, and at pleasure producing a succession of rich and beautifully varied tints over the whole body, at a very early period called the attention of observers to their habits. Aristotle, the great Greck naturalist, who never was equalled except by George Cuvier, has left a very perfect description of the chameleon, in the 11th chapter of his 2d book on the history of animals. Various poets and fabulists have, at different periods, contributed to its celebray, and, by maccurate or fanci-ful representations, have rendered it far more of a producy than nature ever designed it to be.—The skin of the chamefrom is composed of a sort of small, scaly grams, and, under ordinary circumstances, .s of a greenish-gray color. The general torm of the body reminds one of the lizaid, but the trunk is compressed, and the back highly ridged or cutting. The occiput, or posterior part of the head, is elevated pyramidically; the eyes are large, projecting for outwards, yet almost entirely covered over by the skin, except mimediately opposite the pupil. What is still more singular, the eyes are capable of moving independently of each other, taking different directions at the same moment. There is no visible external our tithe tongue is fleshy, cylindrical, and capable of great elongation; the teeth are trilobate. The first jibs unite with the sternum, the succeeding with their correspondents of the opposite side, enclosing the abdomen an a perfect circle. Each of the feet has five toes, but these are separated into two portions (one containing two and the other three toes) by the skin, which covers them entirely to the nails. The tail is long, round and prehensile, or capable of grasping twigs or branches, to sustain the animal. lungs of the chancleon are vesicular, and so large that, when inflated to the utmost, the whole body becomes almost transpa-With the different degrees of inflation, the surface undergoes changes of color, owing to the variations produced in the distribution of the blood, and not, as has been fabled, by the animal assuming

the color of the body upon which it happens to be placed. It is scarcely possible to witness any thing more curious or beau-tiful than the rapid transitions, from huc to hue, exhibited by the chameleon, when aroused to motion. The chameleons are all exceedingly slow, dull, and almost torpid. The only part which they move with celerity is their long tongue. This organ is clothed, at its extremity, with a viscid, glucy mucus, and is darted out for the purpose of capturing insects, upon which the animal subsists. As they feed but seldon, and are frequently seen inhaling the air, to inflate their bodies as above-meutioned, ancient observers concluded that they fed altogether on air; but closer at-tention to their habits has shown that they require a diet rather more substantial. The specimens occasionally brought abveto the U. States, rarely survive the first winter after their arrival, though they take food without much difficulty. Three or four species are well known, and are natives of Africa and the Molucca islands. They pass their lives altogether upon trees, feeding upon small insects, for which their construction shows them to be perfectly adapted. Doubtless new species will be added to the catalogue, as the countries of which they are natives shall be more fully explored.

Chamisso, Adalbert de, a naturalist and circumnavigator of the world, born 1781, in Champagne, left France, with his parents, during the revolution, and found a new home at Berlin. He entered the Prussign army, afterwards studied, and became intimate with many of the first German literati. In 1813, he wrote the singular tale, called Peter Schlemihl, the history of a man who had lost his sharlow, which is translated into English. Chamisso went as naturalist on the yoyage of discovery, made at the expense of the Russian chancellor count Romanzoft. He sailed from Cronstadt in 1815, and returned to Burlin in 1818, where he received an appointment in the botanical garden. His Bemerkungen und Ansichten, Weimar, 1021, 4to. (Observations and Opinions) during the voyage of discovery, occupy the 3d volume of the work which contains the account of the voyage. Chami-so is also the author of some very pretty German poems.

Chamois (antilope rupicapra, Pall.); a well-known species of the genus antelope (q.v.), found only in high, mountainous regions, where they feed, in small flocks or families, on the highest chiffs affording vegetation, which are almost inaccessible to man. The chamois are exceedingly

shy, and have very acute senses, so that it is only by great patience and skill, that the hunter can come sufficiently near to shoot them. They are so swift, and leap with so much vigor, and with such sureness of foot, as to render it impossible to overtake them in a fair chase. Hence the hunters of the Alps, where a few of this species; are still found, are obliged to encounter the greatest perils in pursuit of this favorite game; and, owing to the occurrence of sudden fogs, storms, avalanches, and various accidents, may always be regarded as placing their lives in great jeopardy. Chamois are found among the mountains of the Caucasian range, and among the heights of the Himalaya, in greater abundance than in the Alps and Pyrenees, where they are so closely pursued. Their flesh is considered a very superior article of food; but whether it is in fact much better than that of other animals of the antelope or deer kind, may reasonably be doubted. The skin of the chaniois is wrought ifto a soft, pliable leather, well known by the name of the animal furnishing it. During the winter, the chamors keeps in the caverns and hollows of the grocks. Its voice is a short, sharp whistling or blowing. Two and sometimes three young are produced at a birth.—The chamois is about three feet in length, and two feet high; its head resembles that of f the domestic goat, but the nostrils are less, and the upper lip not so prominent. It has no muzzle nor beard. The horns are six or seven inches long, round, almost smooth, at first straight and perpendicular, and suddenly termmating in a hook directed backwards, and slightly downwards. , Ther are no larmiers,\* nor entaneous appendages or glands, in front of the lower part of the neck. The skin is clothed with two sorts of hair—a very abundant and brownsh woolly, and a dry and frangible, silky hair, varying with the seesons, upon the body exclusively, of a rather deep-brown in winter, of a brown fawn color in summer, and slightly gray in the spring. Both sorts of hair are gray at the base throughout the year. The head is of a pale-yellow color, excepting a blackbrown band, which commences near the nose, and ends at the base of the horns and cars, after surrounding the eyes. The tail is black. The inside of the thighs and the cars are white. The hoofs are concave beneath, and terminate by a projecting

The larmer is a construction appended to the eyes of various animals of the deer kind, &c., for which there is no English name. Its use is unknown.

edge, especially on the outside. The female closely resembles the male, except that she is much smaller. The kids are Square miles, 11,880. It now forms the of a deep yellowish color, having the under law, both sides of the head, and the throat, white. There is a black hand, beginning at the corner of the mouth on each check, surrounding the eye, and ending on the forchead, without meeting the band of the other side; end of the tail black; thighs white; a dorsal line, crossed by a transverse one, upon the shoulders.

CHAMOMILE. (See Camomile.)

CHAMOMILE, ROMAN (anthemis nobilis, Lan.); a perennial plant, native of Europe. and flowering in June or July. Chamomile flowers, such as they are found in the shops, are white, desiccated, of a very aromatic and rather pleasant smell, and of a very bitter and warm taste. They contam an essential oil, of a fine blue color, a gummo-resinous principle, camphor, and tannin. Water and alcohol dissolve their active principles. The Roman chamornile is a moderately energetic stimulant, possessing, on account of its bitterness, some tome properties, which have rendered it a popular remedy for a number of diseases. It is employed with success to stimulate the digestive functions in dyspersal, chloroses, goot, in flatulent cohes, &c. It is also advantageously used in slight intermittent fevers, and spasmodic affec-A strong infusion, taken warm and in a large quantity, provokes voiming: in consequence of which it is used in this manner, especially in North America and England, in order to assist the action of emends. It is also administered With advantage as an authelimetic. The common chamomile (matricaria chamomilla, Lin.) is now out of use. (See Canomile.)

CHAMOUNI, CHAMOUNIS, CHAMOUNIS, or Спамога : a town of Savoy, in Upper Faueigny; 12 miles E. S. D. Chamberry, 42 chiefly in the department of the Marne, in S. E. Geneva; population, 1500. It is situated in a celebrated vale, which has X. of mont Blanc, S. E. of the lake of Geneva; 18 miles long, and 14 broad. river Arve flows through the centre of it. The scenery surrounding the vale is unrivalled in beauty and grandeur. It is 3300 feet above the sea. It is visited by all

travellers in Switzerland.

CHAMPAGNE; before the revolution, a country of France, bordered E. by Lorraine and Franche-Comté. S. by Burgundy and Nivernois, W. by the Isle of France and Picardy, and N. by Flanders. It is about 195 nules in length, and 135 The land is fertile, and produces the celebrated wine called after its name;

also much grain and pasturage. Troyes was the capital. Population, 1,200,000. whole of the departments of Ardennes, Marne, Upper Marne, Aube, and part of those of Yonne and Seine-and-Marne.

(See Champaign.)

CHAMPAGNE, Philip, an eminent painter, born at Brussels, in 1602, went to Paris in 1621, where he was afterwards appointed painter to the queen Maria de Medicis, who gave him the direction of the paintings for the Luxembourg. He commenc ed the Galerit des Hommes illustres. In the suburb St. Jacques he painted six pictures for the Carmelites. Their church contains a crucifix by him, which, though painted on the horizontal surface, appears to the most practised eye to be perpendicular. The paintings in the dome of the Sorbonne are among his best works. He was director of the academy of fine arts. When he began to feel the infirmities of age, he retired to the Port Royal, where his daughter was a nun. She afforded him the subject for a beautiful painting. She as represented seated, a protracted fever having brought her to the verge of death, given up by the physicians. She is praying with a sister of the convent, and regams her health. The figure of the daughter, particularly her head, is of extmordmary beauty. The museum of Paris possesses, besides the painting, six others of the same artist, among which are a Lord's Supper and a Mater Dolorosa. Numerous works of his are also to be found at Paris, and scattered through many towns of France. Champagne was very conscientions. He would never paint naked figures. He deserves a very high place amongst the painters of the Flemish school. He died in 1674.

CHAMPAGNE is a wine which is made the ci-derant province Champagne, and is commonly divided into river and mountain wnees (vids de la rivière de Marne, and vins de la montagne de Reims); the former being, for the most part, white, the latter, red. Not all of these wines are sparkling or frothing, though by the name champagae, is generally understood such winas has been subjected to an imperfect fermentation, and contains a quantity of carbonic acid gas, generated during the insensible fermentation in the bottle, which is disengaged on removing the pressure by: which it was detained in solution. The briskest wines are not always the best; they are, of course, the most defective in true vinous quality; and the small portion

of alcohol which they contain immediately escapes from the froth as it rises on the surface, carrying with it the aroma, and leaving the liquor that remains in the glass nearly vapid. For it has been shown, by Humboldt, that, when the froth is collected under a bell-glass surrounded with icc, the alcohol becomes condensed on the sides Hence the still or the of the vessel. creaming or slightly sparkling Champagne wines (vins crimans, or demi-mousseur) are more highly valued by connoisseurs, and fetch greater prices than the full-frothing wines (rins grand mousseux). By using these wines before they are used, the tendency to effervesce is an some degree repressed; but, when they are kept cool, this precaution is unnecessary. In general, it may be observed that the vineyards on the banks of the Marne supply the choicest wines, and that the quality degenerates in proportion as they recede from the river. Among the white wines of Champagne, the first rank is generally assigned to those of Sillery, the produce of the vineyards of Verzenay, Mailh, Raumont, &c. Of the Rems mountain wines, those of Verzi, Verzenay, Mailh, Bouzy and St. Basle, are most esteemed; but the Clos St. Thierry furnishes perhaps the finest red Champagne. The name Jolly champagne, under which, at present, a large quantity of the best champagne is sold in the U. States, does not originate from a place in Champagne, but from the owner of extensive vineyards in that province, who exports much champagne to the U. States. The soil of the principal vineyards throughout Champagne is composed of a loose mark resting on chalk, and sometimes mixed with flints. For the manufacture of the white Champagne wines. black grapes are now generally used. In making the red wines, the grapes are Yrodden before they are introduced into the vat. Champagne, when well made, and placed in cool cellars, will retain its good! qualities from 10 to 20 years (For further information respecting this delicious liquor, and the art of making it, see A. Henderson's History of Ancient and Modern Wines, London, 1824, I vol., 4to.).

CHAMPARTY, OF CHAMPERTY (campi par-. titio, because the parties in champarty agree to divide the land, &c., in question), is a bargain with the plaintiff or defendant in any suit, to have part of the land, debt, or other thing sued for, if the party that undertakes it prevails therein; whereupon the champertor is to carry on the party's suit at his own expense. It is a species of maintenance, and punished in the same manner. (See Maintenance.)

CHAMPCLOS... This was, from the commencement of modern history, and long afterwards, a place authorized by the laws made by sovereigns for the purpose, and consecrated to particular combats between those who wished to determine, in that manner, cither a lawsuit or dispute of This name was also given to the honor. place set apart for tournaments.

CHAMP D'ASILE; a settlement of French soldiers, in the province of Texas, which was put down in its infancy by the govcrament of Mexico, because Spain was unwilling to permit its existence on the borders of that state. In October, 1818, the colonists were dispersed by a party of Spanish troops. General Lallemand, who was bahished from France, and resided in New Orleans, collected them again, and led most of them to a colony established by French emigrants on the Tombigbee, in the state of Alabama. The district where they settled, and part of which they purchased, while the rest was granted them, was called Marengo, and the capital which they built was called Aigleville. Aigleville was founded principally under the direction of generals Clauzel and Lefebyre Desnouettes. In the treaty concluded by the U. States with Spain, in 1810, respecting the cession of Florida, Texas was given up, without reserve, to New Spain. At the same time, the republic of Texas was formed, under a president, general James Long, who was joined by several Frenchmen from the Champ The capital was Nacodoches. d'Asile. This republic, likewise, was soon dissolved, and general Long returned to the U. States. Texas, at present, belongs to the United Mexican States, forming a part of the sate of Santander. (See Texas and Sen Felipe.)

CHAMP-DI-BATAILLE (field of buttle). in inhitary language, is the ground on which an action is fought. The commander who obliges his adversary to quit this ground, and abandon it to him, ob-

tams the victory.

CHAMP-DF-MARS, OF DE-MAI (campus Mortius). The campus Martius was a large field on the Tiber, in ancient Rome, near the modern Ponte Molle. After the expulsion of the last king, who was the owner, it was consecrated to Mars, and served the Roman youth for a place of military exercise. The people used to assemble there for the election of magistrates, and the place was adorned with splendid buildings and rows of pillars. At a short distance appeared the tomb of Augustus and the Pantheon, now the Maria rotunda. When the Franks had conquer-

ed the Gauls, in 486, they held their public assemblies, according to the German custom, in the open air. In the fifth and succeeding centuries, these assemblies were called, from the time of meeting, Marchfields. In the 8th century, they were transferred by Pepin, the father of Charlemagne, to the month of May, and called the Mayfields; but the plain where the Frankish kings annually reviewed the army, had the name of the field of Mars, or the cam-pus Martius. At the May-fields, the king was present with the members of his court, the bishops, the nobles, and the people. The latter, however, long neg? lected the privilege of attendance, and were at length deprived of it. All questions relating to public affairs, such as war, peace, the enactment of laws, were deended by the majority. Pepin called together only the nobility and the clergy; but Charlemagne ordered that every count should bring with him 13 assessors, or the same number of the most respectable men within his jurisdiction, to represent the people in the general assembly. The first descendants of Capet departed from this usage; but Philip IV, who reigned from 1285 to 1314, restored the third estate, by calling together delegates from the cities.—The modern Champ-de-Mars in Paris is an extensive plain, surrounded by tienches, and furnished with a fourfold low of trees on each side of it, French guards, and the young men in the unitary school, used it for their place of exercise. During the revolution, public festivals were celebrated, and races took place here. Even Louis XVI and his family took part in the preparations made here, in 1790, for a great fête de la federation, which was succeeded by seenes of numult and bloodshed. In 1815, Napoleon selected the Champ-de-Mars for the scene or a general assembly of the French of the 19th century. He determined, after his seturn from Elba, to lay before the representatives of the nation the articles of a additional, which he had drawn up in the form of the Frankish capitularies, and thus, by an imposing show, to establish the legality of his second accession to the throne. This meeting was held June 1, 1815. After a solemn mass, Dubois, one of the 500 deputies from the central committées of the electoral colleges, read an address expressive of the allegiance of the French people to the government of Napoleon. The high chancellor then made known the assent of the people to the proposed supplement

to the constitution. Although no deputies appeared from 40 of the departments, the herald announced that the acte was accepted by the French nation. Accordingly Napoleon signed it, and declared, in a speech before the assembly, that he enjoyed his distinction as an emperor, a consul, a soldier, in fine, that he received every thing, from the people. He then swore to observe the fundamental laws of the empire, and to enforce their observance. The whole assembly, consisting of about 20,000 persons, repeated the oath. Then a Te Deum was chanted, and Napoleon distributed the eagles to the national guards, and, the sea and land forces, who were drawn up around him in the form of squadrons and battalions. Inclusive of 27,000 national guards, the whole number amounted to 50,000 men. After this festival, which partook of a political, religious and military character, Napoleon assembled the chamber of peers, and of the deputies of the people. Three weeks after the com-mencement of the session, the chamber received the abdication of the emperor.

CHAMPE, John, was born in Loudon county, Yirgima, and, in the year 1776, at the age of 24, having entered into the revolutionary army, was appointed a sergeant-major in Lec's regiment of cavalry. After the discovery of Arnold's treason, Washington received frequent intelligence that many American officers, and one brigadier, high in his confidence, were concerned in the conspiracy, and, wishing to ascertain whether such was the case, or the report only an artifice of the British general to weaken his confidence in his officers, he desired major Lee to select from his legion some bold and trusty mdividual, who should proceed to the enemy's army in the character of a desertor, 'make himself known to one of Washington's confidential agents in New York, obtain, through his means, evidence of the innocence or guilt of the suspected officers, and transmit the result to major Lee. He supplementary constitution, called the Acte o was also to seize Arnold, and convey him alive to the American camp, but by no means to kill him, as Washington only wished him to undergo public punishment. and hoped that, by his arrest, he would be able to unravel the conspiracy, and save the life of Andre. Lee fixed upon Champe to execute the project, who expressed his readiness to encounter any personal danger for the cause of his country, but loathed the idea of desertion. Lee, however, finally induced him to undertake the hazardous service. Having taken down his instructions in a peculiar character, and .

essed the American lures with great difficulty, he reached the British galleys lying below Paulus Hook, hotly pursued by his commides as a desetter. After an examination by sir Henry Clinton, he was con-. signed to the care of general Amold, who retained him in his former rank. One object of his enterprise—the preservation of Andre-was defeated by the proceptancy of that officer in confessing the nature of his connection with Arnold, before preparations could be made for the abduction of the latter. Champe, however, obtained full evidence of the innocence of the American officers, and resolved on making a bold attempt to carry off Arnold. But, unfortunately, on the very night when the lesign was to have been executed, by seizing and gagging Arnold in a private garden, where he was accusterned to spend: some time previous to retiring to rest, and then conveying him secretly to a boat, which Lee had stationed in the Hudson, he shifted his quarters in order to superintend the embarkation of some troops, and thus the plot was frustrated. On the junction of Arnold with lord Cornwallis in Virgmia, Champe found an opportunity of escaping to the army of general Greene, who provided him with means to return ., to Washington's camp, where he safely arrived, to the surprise and joy of his old confederates. When Washington assumed the command of the army under preident Adams, he caused inquiry to be made concerning Champe, designing to reward him by promotion for his exemplay conduct; but he learned, with sorrow, that he had recently died in Kentucky.

CHAMPFORT, Schastien Roch Nicolas, was born in 1741, in a village near Clermont, in Auvergne, and went, while he was young, to Paris. He was their called Nicolas, and of his parents knew only his mother, for whom he always retained the tenderest affection. Doctor Mordon was his first patron and instructor. With beautiful features, and an active hand, ingenious, and impatient of restraint, he entered the theatre of life under the name of Champfort. He wrote several articles for the Journal Encyclopédique, and was one of the editors of the Vocabulaire Français. He presented a number of papers to the French and other academies, and wrote some comedies, which were received with great approbation. His Le Marchand de Singrae is still performed. His health soon began to decline, and his income was scarcely sufficient to meet his expenses. (rude as the beginnings of political society Chabanon, his most intimate friend, who enjoyed a pension of 1200 livres, compel-

After ho led Champfort to accept of it: was restored to health, he retired to the country to labor and to study. He prepared some of the most important articles in the Dictionnaire Dramatique (1776, 3 vols.), and completed his tragedy Mustapha ct Zeangir. This production procured for him the office of secretary to the prince of Conde, which he occupied for a time, and then retired to Auteuil. In 1781, he was admitted so the Academie Française. His fine innugural address was his last purely literary work. After this, he married, and lived in retirement, till the death of his wife, when he became reader to the princess Elizabeth, the sister of the king. At the beginning of the revolution, Champfort was connected with the leading characters of the two parties which hastened the approach of the revolution, the one by upholding, the other by attacking, abuses. He endeavored in van to enlighten the former party, and, being compelled to choose between them, he sacrificed his interest, and joined the one whose character and principles were most agreeable to his own. His connexion with Mirabeau and others at first absorbed his whole He had an important part in. attention. several of Mirabeau's speeches and writings. After a time, Champtort's condition was altered, but his principles remained the same. He lost his pension and his office, and supported himself wholly by his own exertions. He was appointed, by the minister Roland, librarian in the great national library : and thus his situation was, for a short time, improved. But, disgusted with the horrors of the revolution, he expressed himself without reserve, and was thrown into prison with Barthelemy and . two other officers of the library. He was soon -ct at liberty; but his short confinement hel filled him with such horror, that, where he was to be thrown into prison a second time, he attempted to put an end to his existence. The care of his friends, and medical aid, saved him for a time; but he died in April, 1794, in consequence of his wounds. His writings bear the marks of much study and pure taste. His integrity, tidelity and disinterestedness cannot be disputed. His works were published in 1795, by Ginguene, in 4 vols., and two editions have appeared since.

CHAMPION. In the rudest state of socicty, men revenge their own wrongs with-His health out restraint. One step is made towards a better state of things, when the state may be) confines this right within certails bounds, and allows it to be exercised only.

with certain formalities. In some countries, however, particularly in England, the legal recognition of the right of private. combat (see Combat), had this injurious effect, that the practice became so settled us to be allowed to continue, even after more rational ideas had grown up on the subject of the administration of justice. The combat, after it had become a common means of settling disputes, was not always waged by the contending parties. This was the case, indeed, in appeals of felony, and if the heir, either from sex or age, was incapable of waging his battle, as it was called, the question was left to a more rational mode of settlement. in the writ of right, the last and most solenm decision respecting real property, the tenant was required to produce his cham-pion, who threw down his glove as a chul-lenge to the champion of the demandant, and the latter, by taking it up, accepted the challenge. The laws authorizing judicial combat, though fallen into disuse, continued to disgrace the English statute-book till the beginning of the reign of George IV, when, an appeal of murder having been made in the case of Abraham Thornton (reported 1 Baruwell and Alderson), he was advised by his counsel to claim his right of trial by battle. (See Appeal, vol. 1, p. 305.) As the judges decided that this could not be refused him, the next heir, the brother of the deceased, a lad of 16, declined any further proceedings. Even the right to the English crown was, in some degree, put in issue, by appeal to judicial combat; and the appearance of a champion, offering battle to any one who gainsays the right of the king to the crown, is still a part of the ceremonial of an English coronation. At the last coronation, a question was long agnated in the court of claims, as to the right of a champion to appoint a deputy, in case of his personal incapacity, either through age or profescion. The eldest son of the official champion (Mr. Dymocke, in whose family the championship is hereditary, and who was a land Navigation.) himself in holy orders) was at length allowed to appear as his father's representative.—"When I see," says a German writer, "the number of follies with which governments have leisure to concern themselves, I cannot think that nations are very difficult to be governed.

CHAMPLAIN, Samuel de; a French naval officer in the 17th century, who explored the gulf of St. Lawrence, in North America, founded Quebec and Montreal, in Canada, and gave his name to an inland lake, which it still retains. He was king's lieuvol. III.

tenant, and afterwards governor-general of Canada, where he died in 1634. M. de Champlain was the author of a curious work, entitled Voyages and Travels in New France, or Canada (1632, 4to.).

Champlain; a lake of the U. States, ly-

ing betweeh New York and Vermont, extending from Whitehall, in New York, to St. John's, in Lower Canada; about 130 miles long, and from 1 to 15 broad, containing 600 square miles, about two thirds of which lie in Vermont. It contains up wards of 60 islands, the largest of which are North and South Hero, and Motte island, and receives the waters of several rivers. Otter creek, Onion river, Lamoile and Missisque flow into it from Vermont; and the Chazy, Saranac, Sable, Bouquet and Wood rivers from New York. It chscharges its waters northward into the St. Lawrence by the Richelieu or Sorelle. Two steam-boats ply on this lake, between Whitchall and St. John's. The shipping on the lake, in 1829 amounted to 3181 tons, belonging chiefly to Burlington. The principal towns on the lake are Burlington, St. Alban's, Plattsburg and Whitehall .- Sept. 11, 1814, commodore Macdonough, commander of the American fleet, gained a complete victory over the British fleet, on this lake, in Cumberland bay, which lies et . etly in front of the town of Plattsburg.

Champlain Canal, in the state of New York, forms a communication between lake Champlain and the havigable waters of the river Hudson. It commences at Whitehall, at the south end of the lake, reaches the Hudson at Fort Edward, is continued along the west bank of the river, and forms a junction with the Eric canal at Watervliet, the whole length, including about 17 miles of improved natural navigation in Wood creek and Hudson river, being 64 miles. It is 40 feet wide on the surface, 28 at the bottom, and 4 deep. The amount of lockage is 84 feet. This canal was begungin June, 1818, and completed in November, 1822. (See Canal, and Includ. Mariention.)

Champollion; two French literati of this name, viz:

Champollion (J. F.) the Younger, born at Figeac, 1790, professor of history at Grenoble, studied the Coptic and other Oriental languages, investigated the inscription on the Rosetta stone (q. v.) and several rolls of papyrus, particularly while he was at Turin, in 1823 and 1824, and published the Panthéon Egyptien—a collection of designs taken from figures on Egyptian monuments, with explanations (Paris, 1824, 4to.). He next published his Précis du

Sustème Hiéroglyphique des Anciens Egyptiens, with engravings (Paris, 1824). phonetic alphabet, in which he supposes he has found a key to the whole system gof hieroglyphical writing. Hieroglyphics, according to his theory, are partly pho-· netic (those which serve as signs for sounds), partly hieratic (those which express whole ideas). The two kinds of writing, he says, are intermingled in the ancient inscriptions. Champollion's system rests on the views of Warburton and Young. Th. Ausonioh, in his Analyse de la Theorie de M. Champ, le Jeune, sur les Hiérogl. des anc. Egypt. (Paris, 1824), has undertaken to show that his grounds are untenable. In 1825, Champollion delivcred lectures on his system in Rome. In 1826, Charles X appointed him to superintend the new department of the royal museum in Paris (in the Louvre), which contains the antiquities of Egypt, brought by Drovetti to Leghorn, and purchased by the king, and the monuments of Eastern antiquity in general. In 1828, M. Champollion went with an expedition of learned men to Egypt, at the expense of the king. The results of this journey seem to be of the highest importance. The 11th letter of M. Champollion has reached us. hope, to be able to give, in the articles Egypt and Hieroglyphics, a summary of the discoveries of this ingenious decipherer of the Egyptian mysteries.

Champollion-Figerc, J. J., the elder brother of the preceding, and his instructer, was born at Figeac, in Quercy, in 1779. He was formerly professor at Grenoble, and has distinguished himself by his Lettre sur l'Inscription du Temple de Dendérah, and other archæological essays. His Antiquitis de Grenoble (Grenoble, 1807, 4to.) is Church esteemed. Jin Annales des Lagides (Pans, 1819, 2 vols.) received the prize of the royal academy of inscriptions, and was completed by him in 1820. He has published, also, inquiries into ancient chronol-With Motte, the hthographer, he published Les Tournois du Roi René (af-'ter the original manuscripts and designs found in the royal library), with observations, and 20 engravings (Paris, 1826, folio). Only 200 copies were printed, and each copy was valued at 1300 francs. Chain-; pollion is a member of the royal institute of France, and other literary societies.

CHANCE is used to signify accident, and also probability. The latter is its meaning in mathematics. The doctrine of chances teaches how to find the probability of a given event taking place from an exam-

Système Héroglyphique des Anciens Egyptiens, with engravings (Paris, 1824). In this work, he gives his discoveries of the phonetic alphabet, in which he supposes he has found a key to the whole system; of hieroglyphical writing. Hieroglyphical coording to his theory, are partly phonetic (those which serve as signs for sounds), partly hieratic (those which express whole ideas). The two kinds of writing, he says, are intermingled in the surcient inscriptions. Champollion's system rests on the views of Warburton and

CHANCE-MEDLEY; homicide happening either in self-defence, on a sudden quarrel, or in the commission of an unlawful act, without any deliberate intention of doing

mischief.

Chancel is that part of the choir of a church, between the altar or communion-table and the rull that encloses it, where the minister is placed at the celebration of the communion.

CHANCELLOR: an officer supposed to have been originally a notary or scribe, under the emperors, and named cancellarius, because he sat behind a lattice, called, in Latin, cancellus, to avoid being crowded by the people. There are, however, other Whatever may derivations of this title. have been its origin, the office and name of chancellor were undoubtedly known at the court of the Roman emperors, where the title seems to have signified, originally, a chief-scribe or secretary, who was afterwards invested with several judicial powers, and superintendence over the other officers of the empire. From the Roman emfore the title and office passed to the Roman church, and hence every bishop hes, to this day, his chancellor, the principal judge of his consistory. When the modern kingdoms of Europe were established upon the rains of the empire, almost every state preserved its chancellor, with different jurischenous and dignities, according to their different constitutions. In all he seems to have had the supervision of all charters, letters, and such other public instruments of the crown as were authenticated in the most solemn manner, and, therefore, when seals came into use, he. had always the custody of the king's great seal. This officer has now great authority in all the countries of Europe.

The Lord High Chancellor of England is the first judicial officer of the crown; and first lay person of the state, after the blood royal. He is created neither by writ nor patent, but by the mere delivery of the great seal into his custody. In like manner, the act of taking away the seal by the

king determines the office. He is, ex officio, a privy counsellor, and, according to lord Ellesmere, prolocutor of the house of lords by prescription. The question of separating the office of prolocutor of the lords from the office of chancellor has been lately agitated. He has the appointment of all justices of the peace in the \* kungdom, is visitor, in the king's right, of all royal foundations, and patron of all crown livings, under the value of 20 marks, in the king's books. The office having, in early times, been always filled by ecclesiastics (for no others were then capable of an employment requiring so much writing), le became keeper of the king's conscience; and, by special appointment, he now exercises a general superintendence as guardian over all infants, idiots and lunatics; though these latter powers are not necessarrly attendant on his office, as Blackstone scens to have imagined, but can be delegated by the crown to any other judicall officer; as, in fact, they were delegated even as late as the reign of James I, when the seals were held by doctor Wilhams, then dean of Westminster, and afterwards bishop of Lincoln. The great scal has been not unfrequently put in commission, and was last so on the resignation of lord Thurlow, in the year 1793.

The Vice Chancellor is an officer recently created, who takes precedence after the lord chief justice of the common pleas, and before the chief baron. He is addressed, like the master of the rolls, by the style of his honor. Though the appointment was made with a view to meet the complaints against delay, and to facilitate the business of suitors, yet, as an appeal lies afterwards to the chancellor, the experiment has not been attended with great success. (For an account of the court of the cou

chancery, see Equity, Courts of.)

The Chancellor of the Exchequer is the principal finance minister of the government, and, as all questions of supply originate in the house of commons, a peer cannot be conveniently appointed to this office. When the first lord commissioner of the treasury is a commoner, the two offices are generally united.

The Chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster presides in the court of the duchy chamber, to decide questions relating to lands holder of the king, as duke of Lancaster; but it does not appear that this is a court of record. The chancellorship is generally bestowed during pleasure, though there are two instances of its being granted for life; the last being that of the celebrated lord Ashburton. The chancellor of the

duchy of Lancaster is one of the king's cabinet ministers.

The Chancellor of Oxford is the supreme, head of that university, elected for life by the members of convocation. He is generally a nobleman of the highest rank, who is installed with great ceremony. The duties of the office are almost entirely discharged by the vice-chancellor; the chancellor's own acts being limited to the signing of diplomas, &c.—Under the vice-chancellor are four pro-vice-chancellors, nominated by him from among the heads of colleges, to one of whom, in his absence from the university, he delegates his authority.

The Chancellor of Cambridge, whose duties are very similar to those of the chancellor of Oxford, is elected biennially by the senate; but there is no instance, at least in modern times, where a reelection has not taken place.—The title chancellor is given, in England, to several other

officers of inferior bodies. \*

The chancellor was one of the highest officers in the German states, and, by the influence of his office, was one of the most important. In Germany, this dignity was, from the remotest times, vested in one of the higher clergy, until the head of the German clergy, the archbishop and elector of Mentz, united it for ever with his office as arch-chancellor of the empire. The two other spiritual electors held the same dignity, but it was merely titular; the archbishop of Cologne, as arch-chancellor of Italy; the archbishop of Treves, as arch-chancellor of Gaul, and Arles, i. e., the kingdom of Burgundy, once belonging to Germany. The arch-chancellorship of Mentz, on the contrary, had important duties attached to it-the direction of the dict, and of the public business, as well as of all the imperial chanceries. The elector appointed a . vice-chancellor, who was the actual minister of the empire at the imperial court.— The chancellor of France was the highest officer of state, and the only one, who, when once appointed, could not be dismissed. In case, therefore, it was desired to remove him from participation in affairs, a keeper of the scals (garde des secaux) was appointed. As the chancellor was properly the minister of justice, he was chosen from the body of jurists. A relie of his spiritual character was, that all his furmture, liveries, and even his coach, were black. This dignity is now restored. Besides the chancellor of the kingdom, the chancelier de France, the queen (in Germany, also, the empress had her arch-,

chancellor, the bishop of Fulda), the sonsand grandsons of the king, the first prince of the blood, the orders of knighthood, the universities, &c., all had their chancellors. The German states began about the middle of the 15th century to appoint chan-· collors, whose duties are widely different, but are generally united with the office of president of the higher judicial and executive authorities. In Bayaria, for example, there were a chancellor of the privy council, and a court-chancellor, a chancellor of fiefs, and executive chancellors, m the different provinces. King Frederic II (the Great) of Prussia established, some years after his accession to the throne, in 1747, the office of a grand-chancellor and chef de justice for the famous Samuel de Coccep, to whom he had committed the reform of the judiciary. He had several successors in this dignity, but it was finally abolished. In the Austrian monarchy there are three court-chanceries-1. the imperial-royal, at the head of which stand the high court-chancellor, with three other court-chancellors, viz., the Bohemian-Gahcian, the Lombardo-Venetian, and the Austrian-Illyrian ; 2. the Hungarian ; and, 3. the Transylvanian. In Austria, almost every office of importance is called a The dignity of a privycourt office. chancellor of the court and state was · conferred, after a long interruption, on prince Metternich.

CHANCERY. (See Equity, Courts of.)

CHANGES. (See Combination.) CHANNEL ENGLISH; the sea between England and France, the passage of which is often very tedious for vessels going from the Atlantic into the German ocean. (See

Calais and Doner.)

CHANNELS, of CHAIN-WALES, of a ship; broad and thick planks projecting horizontally from the ship's outside, abreast of and somewhat behind the masts. They are formed to extend the shrouds from each other, and form the axis or middle line of the ship, so as to give greater security and support to the masts, as well as worth, &c. In 1814, Chantrey visited to prevent the shrouds from damaging the gunwale, or being injured by rubbing against it.

CHANT. (See Church Music.)

ary. The opinion of English critics is not without foundation, that this artist, who was formed in the school of nature, and who has struck out a new career by the power of his own genius, has exercised a favorable influence on the improvement of sculpture in England. He was born in 1782, at Morton, a village on the

borders of Derbyshire. While a schoolboy, he made models in clay. His mother, the widow of a wealthy farmer, had destined him for a lawyer. But the very day that he arrived at Sheffield, to enter his new school, he saw some images cahibited at the window of the sculptor and gilder Ramsay. That moment decided his destiny; and, in obedience to his impulse, he resolved to become an artist. He became a pupil of Ramsay, labored three years without cessation, designed, and modelled every leisure moment, and studied from nature, but was obliged to conceal his productions from his dissatisfied master. In 1802, he went to London, where he became known by a successful bust of the celebrated Horne Tooke, in which he displayed the principles of a free, natural style. The city of London now intrusted him with the execution of the statue of George III; after the completion of which he prepared a design of a monument, to be erected on the shore of Yarmouth, in honor of Nelson; but the idea, in itself tasteless, of creeting the statue of the hero 130 feet high, with a star on his left breast (to be illuminated by night), as a Pharos, on a pier projecting far into the sea, and on a pedestal made of the bows of vessels taken from the enemy, was too gigantic to be executed. Chantrey's reputation was more increased by a group of two sisters (in the cathedral of Litchfield) embracing each other in the gentle slumber of death, whose childrsh forms exhibit repose and tranquility meevery outline and in every member; a kneeling female, lady St. Vincent, and a lively girl, standing on tiptoe, and care-sing a dove in her bosom (the daughter of the duke of Bedford), placed at Woburn abbey, at the side of Canova's Graces. He has also executed several other monuments in St. Paul's church and other places. His latest productions are highly esteemed—the busts of Playfair, Walter Scott, Benjamin West, Words-Paris, where he viewed the models of Italian sculpture, and afterwards travelled to Italy. He has, nevertheless, remained faithful to his original natural style. One of the last works of Chantrey is the statue of Washington, in the state-house at Boston. He has lately completed a bronze statue of Pitt, 12 feet high, in modern costume, for the city of London.

CHAOS; according to the signification of the word, the void which embraces all things. Hesiod mentions, as the original principles of all things, Chaos, Earth, Turtarus and Eros (Love); other ancient pocts made Chaos alone the primeval source from which every thing is derived; others' added to it Night, Erebus and Tartarus;' and others still represented Chaos as the parent of the Earth and Heaven; after the production of which, Eros (Love) completed the creation. In later times, by 'chaos is understood the unformed primeval matter, of which every thing is made. Chaos, according to Hesiod, produced by and out of itself Erchus and Night, who, in turn, were the parents of Æther and Day:

Charel Hill; a post-town in Orange county, North Carolina, near the head of New Hope creek, a branch of the Haw; 28 miles W. N. W. of Raleigh; lon. 79° 37 W.; lat. 35° 40' N. It has an elevated and healthy situation, and contains about 30 houses. The surrounding country is hilly, abounding in springs, and the soil is not remarkably fertile. This is the seat of the university of North Carolina, which was incorporated in 1793; and degrees were first conferred in 1797. The college buildings consist of a chapel, two spacious edifices for the accommodation of students, all of brick, and a president's house. The funds consist of 30 or 40,000 dollars in bank stock, 50 or 60,000 acres of land, and all escheded property. There is a good chemical apparatus. The college library contains about 1800 volumes. The execunive officers consist of a president, who is also professor of moral philosophy, and 4 professors, 1 of mathematics, 1 of chemistry, I of languages, and I of rhetorics and 2 tutors.

CHAPLLAIN, Jean, better known by an unsuccessful poem than many poets by successful ones, was born in Paris, Dec 4, 1595. Marini, who went to Paris to have his Adonis printed there, induced him to write a preface to that poem, by which Chapelain attracted the notice of cardinal Richelieu. The latter, having the weakness to set up for a bel esprit, stood in need of a poet who would labor will him, and, at times, also, for him. Chapelain was possessed of talents and learning; he was obsequious and (which was the principal thing) discreet, and thus his fortune was made. He became one of the first members of the Académie Française, and was charged with the organization of that body. He received a large pension, and soon became the oracle of the French poets of that time. It would have been better, however, if he himself had not set up for a poet. His Maid of Orleans (Pucelle) was begun in 1630, and was, con-

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sequently, one of the first epic attempts in French literature. As it was announced 20 years before its publication, great expectations had been raised, which were by no means answered on its appearance (1656). In the first 18 months, indeed, six editions were rapidly sold; but it soon became an object of ridicule with the modern French poets, and sunk into oblivion. As a man, Chapelain was universally esteemed. He died Feb. 22, 1674. The most complete edition of his Pucelle (18 books) appeared at Geneva in 1762. The royal library in Paris contains all the 24 books in manuscript.

CHAPELLE (properly Claude Emanuel Luillier); so called from La Chapelle, a village near Paris, where he was born in 1626; one of the most annable and pleasing of the French poets. His lively and convival disposition, his wit and talents, procured him the friendship of persons the most distinguished for rank and learning: among the latter were Racine, Boileau, Mohere, Lafontame, Bernier, &c. The productions of Chapelle bear the stamp of his characteristic case, gayety and wit. His description of a journey to Montpellier, Relation d' un Voyage fait en France (1662, 12mo.), written jointly with Bachaumont, is a model of case and pleasantry. He also wrote many songs, sonnets and epistles. He possessed, in a re-markable degree, the talent of saying many witty things on a barren subject. He died in 1688.

CHAPLAIN properly signifies a person provided with a chapel, or who discharges the duties thereof. The name is applied to elergymen both in the Catholic and Protestant churches. The origin of the terra is generally explained in the followmg manner: Bishop Martin (q. v.) is said to have worm a hood (capa) which was valared as possessing nuraculous powers, and" was, therefore, preserved, after his death, in a separate house, called, from this hood, capella (chapel), and the person stationed in the chapel to show it to pious spectators was termed chaplain. Charlemagne is said to have possessed St. Martin's hood among his relies, and to have erected a chapel, called by the name of St. Martin, in Germany, at the place where Furth afterwards This emperor is also related to have built similar chapels at Nuremberg and Altenfurt. Another less probable derivation deduces the word, indeed, from capella, but explains it to signify the box in which the first missionaries carried the requisites for celebrating the Supper, who were thence denominated chaplains.

CHAPTE D'AUTEROCHE, Jean, born in the year 1722, in Auvergne, took clerical orders; and devoted himself to the study of autronomy. In 1760, he was appointed by the academy to observe the transit (q. v.) of Venus over the sun's disk, at Tobolsk (June 6, 1761). He had the good fortune to find the sky clear and serene at the time when he wished to \*make his observations. After an absence of two years, he returned, and published a narrative of his travels. Besides much valuable information, it contains many unfavorable remarks on Russia, so that the · empress Catharine II herself wrote a reply to it, in a pamphlet, entitled Antidote contre le Voyage de l'Abbé Chappe. The same phenomenon, by which Chappe had been attracted to the north, prompted him, in 1769, at the suggestion of the academy, to undertake a voyage to California; but, be-fore he could complete the object of his voyage, he died at St. Lucar, Aug. 1, 1769. His observations on this voyage have been published by C. F. Cassini, under the title Voyage de Californic (Paris, 1772, 4to.). They did not answer the expectations which had been entertained of them.

CHAPPE, Claude, nephew of Chappe d'Auteroche (q. v.), born in 1763, celebrated as the inventor of the telegraph, attracted notice, in his 20th year, by several valuable essays in the Journal de Physique. Wishing to communicate with his filends, who lived at the distance of several miles from him, he conceived the idea of conversing with them by means of signals; and his experiments for this purpose led him to his important invention. Having succeeded in creeting his machine on a large scale, he laid a description of the work, which he called telegraph, before the national assembly, in 1792. The "establishment of the first telegraphic lifte was ordered in 1793: the first event communicated by it was the capture of Condé. The convention, having received this news at the opening of a session, forthwith decreed that Conde should be called, in future, Nordlibre, and was apprized, in the same sitting, that the edict had been delivered and published to the army.\* The method of interchanging messages by signals was known to the ancients, and has been used by navigators from time im-

\* The telegraph at Leverpool communicated intelligence to that at Holy Head, 156 miles distant, and received an answer, the whole within the poriod of 35 wecould. This is supposed to be the quekest interchange of communication that evertook place. Atlas (London paper), Sept. 27, 1929. memorial The tactician Æneas mentions several attempts to express the letters of the alphabet at a distance by signals; and, towards the end of the 18th century, a trial of this kind was made by Amontons. The system of the former, however, admits of only a very limited application; a whole night being hardly sufficient to compose two or three words according to his method. Amontons, who is generally placed among the inventors of the telegraphic art, left no sketch of the machine contrived by him. The problem, therefore, still remained to be solved. object was, to discover an expedient for conveying any information with despatch to any place and at any time. Chappe invented a machine, the signals of which are very distinct, while its motions are easy and simple. It may be crected at any place, defies every kind of weather, and, notwithstanding its simplicity, contams signs enough to convey any ideas, in such a way that not more than two sighals are commonly necessary. The honor of this invention was contested by namy persons. The chagrin which these disputes produced in the mind of Chappe threw him into a deep inclancholy, and, in 1805, he put a period to his existence by precipitating himself into a yell. brother, Jean Joseph, became ducctor of the telegraph in Paris.

CHAPTAL, Jean Antoine Claude, count of Chanteloup, peer of France, born in 1756, devoted himself to the study of medieme and the natural sciences. Having been long known as a distinguished physician, he rendered himself conspicuous as an adherent to the cause of the revolution, at the assault upon the citadel of Montpellier, in 1791. Being called to Paris, in 1793, on account of the scarcity of gun-powder, inschemical knowledge, and his activity in the enormous factory at Grenoble, enabled hun to supply the necessary quantity, by the production of 3500 pounds every day. In 1794, he refurned to Montpelher, received a place in the administration of the department of the Herault, and the professorship of chemis try, which had been founded there for him. In 1798, he was made a member of the Institute, favored the revolution of the 18th Brumaire (q. v.), was appointed by the first consul, in 1799, counsellor of state, and, in 1800, mimster of the interior, in which post he encouraged the study of all the arts, and established a chemical manufactory in the neighborhood of Paus. In 1804, he fell into disgrace: the reason. assigned is, that he refused to declare, in

one of his reports, that sugar prepared from beets was better than that from the sugar-cane. In 1805, however, he was made, by the emperor, grand cross of the legion of honor, and member of the conpoleon from Elba, he was appointed director-general of commerce and manufactures, and minister of state. Oh the restoration of the king, he was obliged to retire to private life, and, at the same time, to enter into negotiations with the princess of Orleans, relative to Chanteloup, which formerly had belonged to her. In March, 1816, the king nommated him a member of the academy of sciences. Chaptal's works on national industry, chemistry, the cultivation of the vine, &c., are very much esteemed; especially his Chimie appliquee aux Arts (Paris, 1807, 4 vols.); Ins Chimie appliquee à l'Agri-culture (Paris, 1823, 2 vols.); and De l'In-dustric Française, Paris, 1819, 2 vols.). He was director of two chemical manufactories, at Montpellier and Neuilly, discovered the application of old wool, instead of oil, in the preparation of soup, and the mode of dyeing cotton with Turkish red. He invented several kinds of cement and artificial Puzzolanas, by means of native calemed ochre, without the aid of foreign matters; new varnishes for earther ware, without the use of lead ores and pluma bago, &c., which are so often destructive of health and life; and extended the application of chemical agents to bleaching.

CHAPTER (from the Latin caput, head); one of the chief divisions of a book. As the rules and statutes of ecclesiastical establishments were arranged in chapters, so also the assembly of the members of a religious order, and of canons, was called a chapter, because some or all of the chapters, containing the rules, were read there; and the place where they assembled, as well as the reproof administered to a de-Magnent member, by reading the rules of the chapter transgressed, had the same originally had much of the ecclesiastical constitution, used this expression for the meetings of their members, and even some corporations of mechanics or tradesmen call their assemblies chapters. In England, as elsewhere, the deans and chapters had the right to choose the bishop, but . Henry VIII assumed this right as a prerogative of the crown. In Prussia, also, Protestant bishops have been lately elected, and, still more lately, an archbishop, without the vote of a chapter, by a mere order of the government. This arbitrary

and partial imitation of ancient forms, by which a bishop and archbishep may be elected or degraded like an officer of the army, afforded just occasion of ridicule to the Cutholics.

CHARACTER. This name is given to certain marks, used to signify objects or ideas. The written language of the Chinese is a language of figures, every object or notion being expressed in it by a par-ticular figure. We, also, for the sake of brevity and precision, use, in several sciences, certain signs: for instance-Astronomical Signs: O Sun; D Moon; ⊕ Earth; & Mercury; Q Venus; J Mars: 貴 Vesta; J Juno; Q Pallas; Q Ceres: J Jupiter; と Saturn; 東 Herschel. The twelve signs of the zodiac: % Aries; 8 Taurus; II Gemini; 55 Cancer; CLeo; mg Virgo; 4 Libra; m Scorpio: 1 Sagntarius; 13 Capricornus; # Aquarius; \* Pisces.—Mathematical and Arithmetical Signs, &c.e: Roman ciphers: I, 1; II, 2; III, 3; IV, 4; V, 5; VI, 6; VII, 7; VIII, 8; IX, 9; X, 10; XX, 20; L, 50; C, 100; CC, 200; D or IJ, 500; M or CIJ, 1000, &c. In Algebra, the first letters of the alphabet, a, b, c, commonly denote given magnitudes, while the last letter, x, y, z. &c., stand for unknown magnitudes, which are to be found. Furthermore, +(plus) more, -(. inus) less. signify addition and subtraction: X denotes multiplication,  $\div$  division, = equalnty, Vroot (radix). Also: odegree; 'immute; 'second; "third; &c.-Chemical Signs:  $\triangle$  air;  $\nabla$  earth;  $\nabla$  water;  $\triangle$  fire: D silver: ⊙ gold; ♀ copper; ♂ iron: b lead; ¼ tin; Է quicksilver; ⊕ nitre; ⊖ salt: A sulphur; Q tartar.—Geometri-cal and Trigonometrical Signs: Langle; \( \text{triangle} : \ \Bar\) square ; \( \O \) circle ; \( \O \) similarity ; \( \) or \( \Bar\) parallel ; \( \Bar\) equality and similarity, \( \text{or coincidence} : \Bar\) A greater than \( \Bar\)—Formerly there were more signs and abbreviations used in scientific works than at present. In Prussia. the use of signs in medical prescriptions The orders of knights, which has been abolished on account of the danger of their being confounded.

> CHARACTER MASKS; such as appear, not in dominos, but in the usual dress of certain ranks.

> Charade; a syllabic enigma; that is, an enigma, the subject of which is a name or a word, that is proposed for discovery from an enigmatical description of its several syllables, taken separately, as so many individual words. A charade may be called complete, if the different engmas which it contains are brought into a proper relation to each other, and, as a

whole, unite in an epigrammatic point. The most agreeable manner of expressing such conceits is in verse. Sometimes characters are proposed under the form of little stories, somets, & c.

CHARCOAL. (See Carbon.) To the information contained in the article Carbon, we will only add a fact lately announced in the scientific journals, that, in Picardy, and other provinces of France, where turf is almost exclusively used as fuel, the inhabitants, by means of a cheap apparatus, are able to carbonize it so as to render it

equal to the best charcoal.

CHARDIN, Jean, son of a Protestant jeweller in Paris, and a jeweller himself. was born in 1643. Before he had reached his 22d year, his father sent him to the East Indies, in order to buy diamonds. After a short residence in Surat, Chardin hved six years in Ispahan, where he was less engaged in mercantile business than in profound studies and scientific researche-, making use of his connexions at court for collecting the most authentic information of the political and military state of He collected the most valuable Persia. materials relating to antiquities and history. In 1670, he returned to France. Finding, however, that he could hope for no employment on account of his religion, he again kft France for Persia, in 1671, taking with him a considerable quantity of jewels, &c. He spent 10 years partly in Persia and partly in India. In 1681, he arrived in London, whore, soon after his arrival, Charles II bestowed on him the bonor of knighthood. Chardin published the first volume of his travels, in London, in 1686. The other volumes were about to follow, when he was appointed minister plenipotentiary of the king of England to the states-general of Holland. and agent of the English East India company to the same. His new duties did not distract hun from his favorite employment, so that, in 1711, two enitions of his travels appeared. He soon after returned to England, where he died in 1713. The exactness and truth of his statements, and the extent of his knowledge, have been confirmed by all succeeding travellers. The best edition of Chardin's travels is that by Langlès, 1811, in 10 vols. 8vo., with an atlas in folio.

CHARENTE; a giver in France, rising in the department of the Upper Vicime. It falls into the sea about 8 miles below Rochefort, opposite to the isle of Oleron, after a course of about 100 miles. It gives its name to a department. (See Departments.)

CHARENTON; a market-town about three leagues and a half from Paris, on the road to Troves and Lyons, at the confluence of the Marne with the Seine. To its situation, Charenton, which is a very', busy and populous place, owes its numerous mercantile and manufacturing establishments. The bridge across the Marne must be considered as the key to Paris on this side; hence the memorable. attacks upon it both in the civil wars of France, and in those with foreign enemies. In 865, the Normans made themselves masters of it, and destroyed it. In 1814, its possession was warmly contested. The students of the veterinary school at Alfort, in the neighborhood, had solicited from the government permission to defend this post against the advancing troops of Wirtenberg and Austria. was intrusted to them; but they were compelled to retire, after a heroic defence, before superior numbers. At Petit-Charenton is the celebrated hospital for the insane, where many unfortunate individuals, of both sexes (usually 4-500), are treated with great care, in order to effect their cure: those who are declared incur able are sent to Bicetre. Here died, in 1813, Sade, the author of Justine, whom Napoleon, on account of this-immoral and dangerous publication, had ordered to be greated as insane.

CHARLTIE DE LA COUTRIE. (See I in-

dir.)

Chargé d'Affaires. (See Minister, Foreign.)

CHARITY, brothers and sistem of. (See Frate niti s.)

CHARROW; capital of Slobodsk-Ukrame, in Russia, containing about 1500 houses, and nearly 15,000 inhabitants. It carries on considerable commerce, and four great fans are held in the place every year. In 1803, the high school at Charkow was erected into a university, and several professors were invited thither from Germany. The emperor granted it an annual income of 130,000 paper-rubles, and, in addition to this, a donation of 400,000 rubles was offered by the nobility of the country for its organization, of which sum, however, the greater part was yet unpaid in 1809. The number of professors is 38, and that of the students about 300: 60 of whom are supported at the emperor's expense. The latter are bound, after leaving the university, to teach, for six years, in the schools within the district of the university, and are pretty arbitrarrly sent, by the university, to those places in which they are to be employed.

The university possesses a library, and a cabinet for the natural sciences. Charkow also contains a gymnasium, a military academy, &c. A philotechnic society likewise holds its meetings there.

CHARLATAN (in Italian, ciarlatano); a mountelank, quack-doctor, empiric; hence every one who makes loud pretensions to knowledge or skill which he does not possess. The word is probably derived from the Italian ciarlare (to prate), because the chief art of a charlatan consists in boasting and idle talk. We find charlatans in all sciences, politics, religion, &c. Of the latter, Molière says:—

Aussi ne vois-je rien qui soit plus odieux Que les detors plàtres d'un zèle spécieux, Que ces francs charlatans, que ces dévots de place, &c

How many political proclamations resemble, in charlatinism, the boasting placards of quacks, or the advertisements of new systems for teaching languages, &c., in a few hours! (For further information, see the interesting article Charlatan in the Encyclopédie Moderne, and for instances of charlatanism, see the daily papers.)

CHARLEMAGNE (Carolus Magnus, Charles the Great); one of those characters whose achievements bear the impress of gigantic power, by whom nations have been formed and destroyed, and who have exercised an influence which has been felt for centuries, and compelled succeeding generations to admire their greatness, though unable to justify all their actions. Charlemagne, king of the Franks, and subsequently emperor of the West, was born in 742, in the castle of Carlsberg, on the lake of Wulfmsee, in Upper Bavaria. Others mention the castle of Ingelhenn, near Mentz, and others Aix-la-Chapelle, as the place of his nativity. His father was Pepin the Short, king of the Franks, son of Charles Martel. After the decease of his father, in 768, he was crowned king, and, according to the wish which Pepin had expressed, divided France with his younger brother Carloman; but the conditions of this partition were several times altered, without being ever adjusted to the satisfaction of the Their mutual discontent was fostered principally by the king of the Lombards, Desiderius (the father-in-law of both princes), because Charlemagne had repudiated his wife. Desiderius sought revenge for the rejection of his daughter, by exciting and encouraging commotions in France, in which he was assisted by the circumstance that the nobles aspired to independence. The people of Aquitama were the first who attempted to be-

come independent. Charlemagne marched against them with rather a small army; but he relied on the assistance of his brother Carloman, to whom a portion of Aquitania then belonged. Carloman appeared, indeed, in the field, but, in the decisive moment, deserted his brother, who was obliged to sustain, alone, an un-His great courage and equal conflict. conduct, after a long and doubtful contest, procured him the victory, in 770, and the insurgents submitted. In this campaign, the youthful hero displayed such distinguished military talents, that the fear of his name curbed his fiercest vassals. This contest convinced Charlemagne of the necessity of repressing the nobles, and employing them thenceforward in important enterprises, in order to divert their attention from the internal affairs of the empire. Had he not, therefore, himself been inclined to wars of conquest, in which his talents could be exhibited in all their splendor, he would have been induced to undertake them by the internal condition of the empire. At Carlo-man's death, in 771, and after the flight of his wife and her two sons to ber father, m Italy, Charlemagne made himself master of the whole empire, the extent of which was already very great, as it embraced, besides France, a large part of Germany. He now formed the plan of conquering the Saxons, for which his zeal for Christianity and its diffusion served him as a tolerable pretence. The Saxous, a nation of German heathens, were in possession of Holstein and Westphalia, between the rivers Weser and Elbe, and, like other barbarhans, preferred pillaging to peaceful occupations, and a wandering to a settled mode of life. They had several leaders, and constituted various tribes, which were seldom disposed to cooperate. ·An invasion of the Syxons into the territory of the Franks was the alleged cause of the first war which Charlemagne began against them in 772. The other wars were produced by the rebellions of this warlike nation, which, overpowered, but not entirely vanquished, was never reduced to complete submission till the peace of Seltz, in 803, after it had embraced Christianity. A part of the Saxons Charlemagne removed to Flanders and Switzerland, and their seats were occupied by the Obotrites, a Vandal tribe in Mecklenburg. The famous pillars called Irminsdule were destroyed by Charlernagne, as monuments of pagan worship: Thus for 32 years did the Saxons resist a conqueror, who, at times, indulgent to

imprudence, often severe to cruelty, striving, with equal eagerness, to convert and 'to subdue them, never became master of . their country till he had transformed it almost entirely into a desert. The Saxons might have made a more successful defence against the power and genus of Charlemagne, had they not been distracted by internal dissensions. The most celebrated of their leaders was Wittikind, and, next to him, Alboin, who finally embraced Christianity in 783. To explain the protracted resistance of the Saxons, we must remember that the manner in which the armies of those days were organized produced an armistice every year (the levy of troops being only for one campaign); that Charlemagne was obliged to wage wars at the same time against the Lombards, the Avars, the Saracens and the Danes; and that the magnitude of his states facilitated the rebellions of his vassals, on which account all his attention was often required to preserve internal tranquillity, and maintain his own author-While he was combating the Saxons on the banks of the Weser, pope Adrian implored his assistance against Desiderius, who had torn from him the exarchate of Ravenna, which Pepin the Short had presented to the holy see, and who was urging the pope to crown the nephews of Charlemagne, that Charlemagne himself might be considered a usurper, and his subjects be induced to renounce their allegiance. The danger was urgent. Charlemagne manediately left Germany, and marched with his army to Italy. Desiderus fled to Pavia, which was bravely defended by the Lombards. city finally fell, and Desiderius, with the widow and sons of Carloman, were carried prisoners to France. Desiderius unded his life in a monastery. Respecting the fate of the others, history is silent. In 774, Charlemagne was crowned king of Italy with the iron crown. Although the kingdom of Lombardy was how extinct, the provinces of which it consisted were ', allowed to retain their former laws and constitutions, it being a general maxim of the great monarch not to deprive the conquered nations of their usages and laws, nor to govern them all under one form. In this he followed the dictates of " sound policy, which, in so turbulent times, led him to beware of consolidating all his vassals into a political body with equal rights, which might render a general combination against their ruler practicable.

In 778, he repaired to Spain, to assist a

Moorish prince. He conquered Pampo-

luna, made himself master of the county of Barcelona, and spread the terror of his name every where. But, on his return, his troops were surprised in the valley of Roncesvalles by the Saracens, in connexion with the mountaineers (the Gascons), and suffered a severe defeat; remarkable from the circumstance, that Roland, oneof the most famous warriors of those \* times, fell in the battle. (See Chivalry.) The disaffection of the tribes of Aquitania induced Charlemagne to give them a separate rulex: for this purpose he selectsed the youngest of his sons, Louis (called te Debonnaire). The Lombards were no less turbulent, and the Greeks made incessmit efforts to reconquer Italy; and the nobles, to whom he had intrusted a part of the sovereignty of this country, evinced little fidelity. He therefore gave them his second son, Pepin, for a monarch: his eldest son, Charles, remaining constantly with him, and assisting him in his manifold undertakings. In 780, he caused these two sons to be crowned by the pope in Rome, hoping, by this means, to render the royal dignity inviolable in the sight of the people. Charlemagne had another son, also called Pepin, who was the oldest of all his children, being the son of his divorced wife. This encumstance probably inspired the monarch with an aversion to Pepin, and prevented him from admitting him to participate in the govgrument. Pepin, therefore, became the insugator of a conspiracy against his father, and finally died in a monastery. After returning from Spain, Charlemagne was again obliged to take the field against the Saxons. Exasperated by the defeat of his generals in 782, he caused 4500 Sax. ons to be massacred at Verden-a measure which arged to fary the hatred of the people. The year 790, the 22d of his reign, was the only one which he passed without taking up arms. As his power mereased, he meditated more seriously the accomplishment of the plan of his ancestor, Charles Martel, to restore the Western empire. To prevent the partition of the empire, the empress Irene, who then reigned at Constantinople, proposed to Charlemagne to marry their children, by which means the world would again have been umted under one dominion. Her proposition was accepted; but Irene's umbition carried her so far, that she dethroned her own son, to render herself supreme, and offered her own hand to Charlemagnes who did not seem averse to this singular union, which would have afforded the world an unparalleled spec-

tacle, had not Irene herself been deposed. In the year 800, Charlemagne was crowned emperor of the West by pope Leo III; and, although his journey to Rome had, in all probability, no other object, he professed himself much surprised at this ceremony. On Christmas-day, he was proclaimed Cosar and Augustus; he was invested with the ornaments of the ancient Roman emperors, and the only thing forgotten was, that the empire could not subsist long in a family where the authority was, by law, divided among the children of the deceased monarch. After Charlemagne had made a monk of ones and the liberal sciences. He strove assidof his sons, Popin, king of Italy, died in 810, whose death was followed, the next year, by that of Charles, the oldest. Thus, of his legitimate sons, one only remained, Louis, king of Aquitania, whom he adopted as his colleague in 813, as his age and mereasing weakness gave him warming that the end of his life could not be far He died Jan. 28, 814, in the 71st year of his age and the 47th of his reign, with anticipations and fears that his empire would not long withstand the attacks of foreign enemies; apprehensions which the event confirmed. He felt, too lale, that the same Saxons, part of whom he had driven from their seats, would one day take revenge on his empire, and in their train bring with them other barbarians. Charlemagne was buried at Aix-la-Chapelle, his favorite and usual place of residence. He was deposited in a vault, where he was placed on a throne of gold, in full imperial costume. On his head he wore the grown; in his hand he held a chalice; at his side was the sword; on his knees lay the book of the evangelists; at his feet his sceptre and shield. The sepulchre was scaled, and over it was creeted a kind of trumphal arch, on which were the words "Here hes the body of Charles, the great and orthodox emperor, who gloriously enlarged, and for 47 years happily governed, the empire of the Franks. Charlemagne was a friend of learning; he deserves the name of restorer of the sciences and teacher of his people. He attracted, by his liberality, the most distinguished scholars to his court; among others, Alcuin, from England, whom he chose for his own instructor; Peter of Pisa, who received the title of his grammarun; and Paul Warnefried, more known under the name of Paul Diaconus, who gave the emperor instruction in Greek and Latin literature. By Alcuin's advice, Charlemagne established an academy in I his palace at Aix-la-Chapelle, the sutings

of which he attended, with all the scientific and literary men of his court-Leidrudes, Throdulphus, the archhishops of Treves and Mentz, and the abbot of Corvey. All the members of this academy assumed names characteristic of their talents or inclinations. One was called Damælas, another Homer, another Candidus; Charlemagne himself took the name of David. From Italy he invited teachers of the languages and mathematics, and established them in the principal cities of his empire. In the cathedrals and monasteries he founded schools of theology nously to cultivate his mind by intercourse with scholars; and, to the time of his death, this intercourse remained his favorite recreation. He spoke several languages readily, especially the Latin. He was less successful in writing; because he had not applied himself to it till he was further advanced in years. winter he read much, and even caused a persongo read to him while he took his meals. He endeavored to improve the liturgy and church music. He was desnous of introducing the Roman liturgy into his states; but the clergy, who clung to the ancient usages, offered some resistance. Several churches, however, comphed with the wish of the monarch, and others mingled the Roman and Gallican liturgy. He attempted to introduce uniformity of measures and weights, but was unable to accomplish his design. Another great plan of his was to unite the Rhine with the Danube, and, consequently, the Atlantic with the Black sea, by means of a canal. The whole army was employed on the work; but its accomplishment was prevented by the want of that knowledge of hydraulic architecture which has been since acquired. The arts, however, under ins patronage, produced other monuments of his fame. The city of Aix-la-Chapelle received its name from a splendid chapel, which he caused to be built of the most beautiful Italian marble. . The doors of this temple were of bronze, and its dome bore a globe of massive gold. The imperial palace was built in the highest style of splendor. Charlemagne also erected baths, in which more than 100 persons He was could swim in warm water. hunself very fond of swimming, and frequently used these baths, with all the nobles of his court, and even with his soldiers. At Seltz, in Alsace, he had a no less splendid palace. To Charlemagne France is indebted for its first advances in navigation. He built the light-house at

Boulegne, and constructed several ports. He encouraged agriculture, and made himself immortal by the wisdom of his laws. Thus his law'de villis is esteemed a monument of his views on rural economy; and Menzel, in his history of the Germans, says of him, "His greatest praise is, that he prevented the total decline of the sciences in the West, and supplied new aliment to their expiring light; that he considered the improvement of nations as important as their union and subjuga-This love of intellectual improvement is the more laudable in a prince whose youth was spent in military evercises and the chase, and his whole after life in the whirlpool of war; at a time, too, before the charm of beautiful models had made intellectual occupation an enjoyment, but when literature and science, appearing in heavy forms, destitute of grace, deterred rather than invited. His fame filled even the East. He received ambassadors from the patriarch of Jerusalem, from the emperors Nicephorus and Michael, and was twice complimented with embassies from Haroun al Rasclud. the famous caliph of Bagdad, all of which he received with a splendor unexampled He convened couneven in the East. cils and parhaments, published capitularies, wrote many letters (some of which are still extant), a grammar, and several Laun poems. His empire comprehended France, most of Catalonia, Navarre and Arragon; the Netherlands, Germany as far as the Elbe, Saale and Eyder, Upper and Middle Italy, Istria, and a part of Sclavo-In private life, Charlemagne was exceedingly annable; a good father, and generous friend. His domestic economy afforded a model of frugality; his person, a rare example of simplicity and greatness. He despised extravagance of dress in men, though, on solemo occasions, he appeared in all the splendor of majesty. His table was very frugal. His only excess was his love of the other sex. He was large and strong; his height, according to Eginhard, equalled seven times the length of his foot. His head was round; his eye large and lively; his nose of more than common size; his countenance had an agreeable expression of serenity. His gait was firm; his bearing manly. He enjoyed constant health, till the last four years of his life, when he was attacked by fevers, and bein to limp. In summer, he was accustomed to repose for two hours after dinner, for which purpose he used to undress; but at night he slept uneasily. He wore the dress of this country; on his body, a

linen shirt, over which was a coat with a silk border, and long breeches. For his outer dress, he wore a cloak, and always his sword, the hilt and belt of which were of gold and silver. He possessed a natural, impressive eloquence, and, in his expression of countenance, there was something to excite respect, united with gentleness and kindness. (See Eginhard.)

CHARLEMONT AND GIVET; one of the strongest fortresses in France, in the department of the Ardennes, with 3500 inhabitants. The works occupy both banks of the Meuse, about 25 miles above Naemur, at the junction of several roads, on a steep mountain. The two places completely command the river, and serve as a point of support to a friendly army, advancing along the Meuse, and as a serious obstruction if the forces belong to the enemy, obliging them to leave behind a corps of observation, at least double the number of that which composes the garrison. The ... castle and small town of Charlemont were built in 1555, by Charles V. Louis XIV, who had obtained possession of the place by the peace of Nimeguen, as it was capable of containing only two battalions, enlarged it by fortifying the small town of Givet, which her at the foot of the hill, and by mcreasing the fortification of Charlemont. At present, the place consists of four fortresses, two of which, Charlemont and Great Givet, he on the left bank of the Meuse, and the other two, Little Givet and Mont d'Haur, upon the right. Charlemont uses from a narrow rock, which is 200 feet high, commands althost every direction, descends perpendicularly towards the Meuse, and the west side on the north, is very steep, and descenas with a gentle slope on the east. This last side, the only one on which an attack can be apprehended, is defended by six bastions, a horn and a crown-work, and several detached works. Almost all' the mosts are hewn in the rock, and well provided with casemates. Great Givet has four bastions and three ravelins with dry ditches. Little Givet contains four bastions, and full ditches, but no covered way; and Mont d'Haur,, a hill opposite to Charlemont, is included within the lines of the fortress by a strong crown-work, and may, at the same time, serve as a fortified camp. The fortress is calculated for a parrison of 11,000 men, but, in case of necessity, can contain 25,000, and may be defended by 3-4000 men. Though the two Givets and Mont d'Haur would not offer great obstacles to an attack, yet Charlemont is almost impregnable. It has

Prussians, indeed, contemplated assailing it, in 1815, but abandoned the design, although the Givets and Mont d'Haur had already capitulated. By the treaty of Paris, it was occupied by a Russian garrison.

CHARLEROY, OF CHARLES SUR SAMBRE; a town in the Netherlands, in Numur, on the north side of the river Stambre, in a place formerly called *Charnoy*; 20 miles F. N. E. Mons, 20 N. E. Maubeuge; lat. 50° 26' N.; lon. 4° 32' Es; population, 3744. It has manufactures of glass, hardware and woollen stuffs, and in the neighborhood are extensive pits of turf and coal. It was , taken by the French, under general Valence, in the month of November, 1792, with 4000 prisoners. It was recovered by the Austrans, in the month of June, 1793, when the French were twice defeated; once with the loss of 4000 men, and again of 7000. July 25, 1794, it again surrendered to the French at discretion, with the garrison of 3000 men and 60 pieces of camon.

CHARLES; the name of many important personages, whose lives are here given or referred to, in the following order:- page

and king of Spain, . . . . . . . . . . . . 75 Charles VI, emperor of Germany, . 78 Charles VII of France. (See France. Charles IX, king of France, . . . . 82

Charles I, king of England, . . . . . 85 Charles II, king of England, . . . . 89 Charles Edw. Stuart. (See Edward.) 91 Charles XII, king of Sweden, . . . 91 Charles XIII, king of Sweden, . . . 94 Charles XIV, king of Sweden, . . . . 94

 Charles Emanuel, duke of Savoy. . . . 98 Charles I, king of Spain. (See Charles V, emperor of Germany.), . 99 Charles IV, king of Spain, . . . . . 99

Charles Louis of Austria, . . . . Charles Augustus of Weimar, (see

merated here, we refer the reader to the history of the countries to which they belong.

CHARLES MARTEL; a son of Pepin Heristel (mayor of the palace under the last kings of the Mcrovingian dynasty). father had governed under the weak kings of France with so much justice, and so much to the satisfaction of the people; that he was enabled to make his office hered-VOL. III.

never yet been seriously attacked. The itary in his family. Chilperic II, king of Prussians, indeed, contemplated assailing the Franks, refusing to acknowledge. Charles Martel as mayor of the palace, the latter deposed him, and set Clothaire IV in his place. After the death of Clothaire, he restored Chilperic, and, subsequently, placed Thierri on the throne, showing how absolute was the control of the mayor, and that the royal dignity was a mere phantom. Charles Martel rendered his reign famous by the great victory which he gained, in October, 732, over the Saracens, near Tours, from which he acquired the name of Martel, signifying hammer. He died in 741. His son Pepin the Short governed the Franks till the year 752, nominally under the effeminate king Childeric III; but, in this year, pope Zachary replied to a question put to him by the states of France, that he ought to be king who had the royal power; in consequence of which the Franks declared Pepin king at Soissons, in 752. He died in 768, highly honored by his subjects. His sons were Charlemagne and Carlo-

man. (See Charle nagne.)

CHARLES IV, emperor of Germany, of the house of Luxemburg, was born in 1316, and educated at Paris. His father, John of Luxemburg, king of Bohemia, celebrated in Instory for his chivalric spirit, fell in the battle of Creey. The quarrels of the emperor Louis the Ba arian with the King of Bolamia, the father of Charles, the choice of the latter, in the room of the emperor, excommunicated by Clement VI, and the victory which Louis, far his supenor in power and talents, obtained over his rival, we have not room to relate. the death of Louis, Oct. 21, 1347, Charles of Luxemburg, the inherited the kingdom of Bohemm, and had been chosen emperor in 1345, by five electors, hoped to occupy the imperial throne without opposition. But the very means which had raised him to the throne created him enemies. The princes of the empire regarded him as a servant of the p-que. Ten years had not yet clapsed, since Germany, at the diet of Rense, had adopted the most energene measures against the claims of the holy see. The election of Charles IV was the first infringement of the celebrated consitution of 1338. In consequence, the archbishop of Mentz, whom Clement IV had deposed, the electors of Brandenburg and the palatinate, the duke of Saxe Lauenburg, who arrogated a vote in the election. assembled at Lahnstein, declared the choice of Charles to be void, and elected Edward III of England, brother-in-law of the last emperor; but this monarch, then

at war with France, made use of the offer of the electors so far only as to secure the neutrality of the king of Bohemia, and rejected the proffered crown. Equally fruitless was the choice of Frederic the Severe, landgrave of Meissen; upon which the enemies of Charles elected the virtuous and heroic count Ciuther of Schwarz-burg, whom Charles, as some writers. though without sufficient authority, assert, . put out of his way by poison. Those who surrounded Gunther in his last moments extorted from him an abdication, for which they were munificently paid by Charles, who was as liberal, when the celectors to depose him. Charles immedigratification of his ambition was concerned, as he was unjust and rapacious in sat-Charles now used isfying his avarice. every effort to appease his enemies. He married the daughter of the elector of the palatinate, gave the elector of Brandenburg Tyrol as a fiet, and was unanimously elected emperor, and consecrated at Aixla-Chapelle. But no sooner was he crowned, than he took possession of the imperial insigma, and, contrary to his express promise, conveyed them to Bohemia. He persuaded his father-m-law, the elector of the palatmate, to subject a great portion of the ipper palatmase to the fendal court of Bohemia. This tribunal, which he regarded as the most proper instrument for the subjugation of Germany, was enlarged in its jurisdiction more and more. In 1354, the emperor went to Italy, to be crowned by the pope; but this Xivor he purchased on terms which made han an object of ridicule and contempt. The engaged to appear without any armed force. Having been consecrated at Milan king of Italy, he confirmed the Viscontian the possession of all the usurpations of which he had promised to depuye them. He also aunulled all the acts of his grandfather, Hen-ry VII, against Florence, and, by a treaty concluded at Padua, resigned the latter city, with Verona and Vicenza, to Venice. Trafficking thus with his rights, he went to Rome, and was crowned by a delegate of the pope, but did not date to remain there a single day. He refused the request of some Romans, to claim the city, as belonging to him, in the name of the empire, and, in a treaty, renounced all sovereignty over Rome, the States of the Church, Ferrara, Naples, Sicily, Sardinia and Corsica, and even took an oath not to return to Italy nithout the consent of the pope. Despi-7 ed by the Guelplis, detested by the Glubellines, Charles returned to Germany, where he is wed the celebrated golden bull which, till recently, continued a funda-

mental law of the German empire. (See Bull.) He thus acquired some claims to the public gratitude; but these were soon effaced by the general indignation, excited by the proposal made, with his consent, by the papal nuncio, to introduce a tax, equal to the tithe of all ecclesiastical revenues, for the benefit of the holy see. All the members of the diet opposed it; and Charles, in his auxiety to conciliate the princes of the empire, announced that he would propose to the assembly a reform of the German clergy. The pope, enraged at this proposal of the emperor, exhorted the ately relapsed into his accustomed submissiveness, and not only abundoned all his reforms, but even confirmed, in 1359, all the privileges of the clergy, all their preent and future possessions, and made then, independent of the secular power. Such vacillating conduct subjected him to the contempt of both parties, of which he received a proof before the close of the same diet, which was held at Mentz. Severa! princes had, by degrees, obtained possession of many territories; formerly fiefs of the empne. Charles attempted to reunite them with the empire; but the dissau-faction which was manifested at the attempt, frustrated this plan of the weak emperor, who indemnified himself by selling to the king of Poland the rights of sovereignty, which had been hitherto exercised by the German emperors, over some of his provmees. It may be easily supposed that, under such an emperor, Germany did not enjoy internal tranquility. Bands of robbefs plundered the country in all quarters The emperor marched against them without accomplishing any thing, and, finally, less the princes and cities to protect them. selves by mutual alliances, as well as they were abic. The state of Italy was no less melancholy. Tuscany was suffering the evils of anarchy; Lombardy was distracted by earl war, and the Visconti had made themselves mosters of the Milanese The emperor, true to his principle of sanetioning power wherever found, appointed these usurpers his vicurs-general in Loinbardy. Imboldened by this, Barnabas Visconti threatened to subject all Italy to his yoke. Pope Urban V sent un invitation to Charles to concert measures of resistance with him, hastened from Avignon to Rome, concluded several alhances, levied troops, and waited for the emperor. who actually appeared with a considerable force; so that Italy, for a short time, deemed itself safe. Charles took advantage of the pope's situation to persuade hun to

crown his fourth wife, Elizabeth of Pomerania, at Rome, and, in return, entered into the most positive engagements with Notwithstanding this, he again engaged in negotiations with the Visconti. and sold them a formal confirmation of all their usurpations. In like manner, during his residence in Italy, he sold states and cities to the highest bidder, or, if they themselves offered most, made them indemendent republies. With great treasures, but despised by his enemies, and hated by his allies, he returned to Germany. Gregory XI, having given his consent that his son Wenceslaus should be elected king of the Romans,\* he employed his illgotten wealth to purchase the vote-of the electors, who were irritated at the conduct of the pope, and distributed among them, in addition, the domains of the empire on the Rhme, and several free imperial cities. Thus he attained his object. To maintain their rights against the arbitrary measures of the emperor, the imperial cities in Suaha formed the (so called) Suabian league, which Charles opposed in vain. To the pope he manifested his gratitude by ex-tending the privileges of the clergy. The empire was nearly ruined, when Charles coed at Prague, in 1378. To his eldest son, Wenceslaus, he left Boherma and Silesia; to the second, Sigismend, the electorate of Brandenburg; and to the third. Lusana. His reign is remarkable for the reprovement and prosperity of Bohemaa. for the founding of the universities of Prague and Vienna; for a terrible persecution of the Jews, and as the period when the sale of letters of nobility commenced w Germany. The history of this prince affords a fine illustration of the soundness of the theory of legitimacy, many of his usurpations having become a part of the

"divine right" of succeeding rulers.

Charles V, emperor of Germany and king of Spain (in the latter capacity, he is called Charles I), the eldest son of Philip, arch-duke of Austria, and of Joanna, the daughter of Ferdmand and Isabella of Spain, was born at Ghent, Feb. 24, 1500. Philip was the son of the emperor Maxiunhan and Mary, daughter of Charles the Bold, last duke of Burgondy. Charles's birth gave him claims to the fairest counthes of Europe. He was educated in the Netherlands, under the care of William of Croy, lord of Chevres. Charles preferred unhtary exercises to study. Chicvres, without diverting him from his favorite

occupations, taught him history, formed him for affairs of state, and implanted in him that gravity which he retained through After the death of Ferdinand, his grandfather, in 1516, Charles assumed the title of king of Spain. The management of this kingdom was intrusted to the celebrated cardinal Ximenes, who, by his genius, prepared the way for the glorious reign of Charles V. In 1519, Maximilian likewise died, and Charles was now elected emperor. He left Spain to take possession of his new dignity, for which he had to contend with Francis I, king of France. His coronation took place at Aix-la-Chapelle, with extraordinary splendor. The elective capitulation (Wahleapitulation, see Capitulation), signed by his umbassadors, he rataned without hesitation. The chief features of it were the reservations made by the electors, securing themselves against foreign influence. The emperor was not to begin any war without their consent; no language but the German or Latin was to be used in the administration of the affairs of the empire; and the rich commercial confederacies of merchants, whose wealth, as the instrument expressed it, had enabled them to act according to their own will, were to be abolished by the emperor, assisted by the advice of the members of the empire. The association aimed at was the powerful Hanscatic league, whose influence had excited the electors' jeal-onsy. The progress of the reformation in Germany demanded the care of the new emperor, who held a diet at Worms. Luther, who appeared at this diet, with a safe conduct from Charles, defended his cause with energy and boldness. The emperor kept silent; but, after Luther's departure, a severe edict appeared against him, in the name of Charles, who thought it for his advartage to show himself the defender of the Roman church. The claims which Francis I had advanced to the empire, and those which he spil preferred to Italy, the Netherlands and Navarre, made war appear mevitable. Charles prepared for it by an alliance with the pope. Hostilaties broke out in 1521. The French, victorious beyond the Pyrenees, were unsuccessful in the Netherlands. A congress held at Calais only increased the irritation, and gave Henry VIII, king of England, a pretext for declaring himself for Charles, whose party daily acquired strength. A serious insurrection in Spain was happily subdued. The defeat of Bonnivet, in the Milanese, and the accession of the constable of Bourbon, indemnified Charles V for his want of success in Provence. Francis,

This was the title given to the person elected during the lifetime of the emperor, to succeed him after his death.

On this occasion, Charles feigned the moderation of a Christian hero. Without improving his advantages, he remained · inactive in Spain. But he thought to attain his object in another way. He proposed to Francis I such hard conditions, that this unfortunate prince swore that he would die in captivity, rather than accede to them. Meanwhile, he was carried to Spain, and treated with respect. Charles, however, did not visit him, until he was informed that the life of his prisoner was in danger. The interview was brief. Charles promised his captive a speedy release. The treaty of Madrid was finally concluded in January, 1526. The power of Charles now became a source of uncasmess to most other princes of Europe. Pope Clement VII placed himself at the head of a league of the principal states of Italy against the emperor; but then all-directed efforts were productive of new unsfortunes. Rome was taken by storm by the troops of the constable, sacked, and the pope humself made prisoner. Charles V publicly distavowed the proceedings of the constable, went into mourning with his court, and carried his hypocrisy so far as to eider prayers for the deliverance of the pope. On resoring the hoty father to liberty, he demanded a ransom of 100,000 crowns of gold, but was satisfied with a quarter of that sum. He also released, for 2,000,000, the French princes, who had been given to iam as hostages. Henry VIII of England now allied himself with the Trench monarch against Charles, who accused Francis of having broken his word, given on the honor of a gentleman. The quarrel brought on a challenge to a duck which did not, however, take place. The war was terminated in 1529, by the treaty of Cambray, of which the condition- were favorable to the emperor. Charles soon after left Spain, and wascrowned in Bologna as king of Lombardy and Roman enmeror. On the occasion of this soleme raty, the proud Charles kissed the feet of the same pope who had been his prisoner. In 1530, he seemed desirous, at the diet of Augsburg, to reconcile the various par-, ties; but, not succeeding, he issued a decree against the Protestants, which they met by the Smalcaldic league. He also published, in 1532, a law of crunical procedure. (See Carolina.) Notwithstanding his undertakings in favor of the Catholic wiigion, Charles always showed hunself moderate towards the Protestants, when-· ever his interest left room for toleration.

who was besieging Pavia, was defeated by Nor did the Protestant princes hesitate to the imperial forces, and taken prisoner, in furnish their contingents, when he was assembling an army against the Turks. Having compelled Solyman to retreat, he undertook, in 1535, an expedition against Tunis, reinstated the dev, and released 20,000 Christian slaves. This success added to his character somewhat of the chivalric, which gave him still more influence in Christendom, and promoted his political projects. He manifested this chivalrous spirit still more in a speech, which he made at Rome, before the pope and cardinals, when hostilities were renewed. in Italy against France. In this he proposed a duel, in which the duchy of Burgundy on the one part, and the duchy of ' Milan on the other, were to be the prize; but, on the following day, he expressed himself in such a manner to the French ambassador, that it was suspected that his challenge was only a figure of speech. His invasions of Provence and Picardy met with small success. 1 truce was concluded in 1537, and, in 1538, prolonged for 10 years. The two monarchs had an interview, in which they spoke only of mutual respect and esteem. Soon after, Charles, who was in Spain, where he had annihilated the old constitution of the cortes, wished to pass through France to the Netherlands. He spent'six days with Francis I in Paris, where the two princes appeared together in all public places like brothers. Courtiers were not wanting, who advised the king of France to detain his guest, until he had annulled the treaty of Madrid; but Francis was satisfied with promises, which Charles very soon forgot. Having quelled the disturbances in the Netherlands, Charles resolved! in 1541, to crown his reputation by the conquest of Algiers. Against Doria's advice, he embarked in the stormy season, and lost a par, of his ficet and army, without gaining any advantage. After his return, his refit-al to invest the king of France with the territory of Milan involved him in a new war, in which the king of England em-braced his part. The army of Charles was defeated at Cerisola; but, on the other hand, he penetrated to the heart of Champagne. The disturbances caused in Germany by the reformation induced the emperor to accode to the peace of Crespy, m 1545. The policy of Charles was to reconcile the two parties, and, towards the Protestants, he employed alternately threats and promises. After some show of negotiation, the Protestant princes raised the standard of war. The emperor declared, in 1546, the heads of the league

under the ban of the empire, excited divisions among the confederates, collected an army in haste, and obtained several advantages over his enemies. John Frederic, the elector of Saxony, was taken prisoner in the battle of Mühlberg, in 1547. Charles received him sternly, and gave him over to a court-martial, consisting of Italians and Spaniards, under the presidency of Alva, which condemned him to death. 'The elector saved bis life only by renouncing his electorate and his hereditary estates; but he remained a prisoner. Meanwhile, the emperor appeared somewhat anore moderately inclined towards the vanquished party. On coming to Witten-berg, he expressed surprise that the exererse of the Lutheran worship had been decontinued. He visited the grave of Luther, and said, "I do not war with the dead: let him rest in peace: he is already before his Judge." The landgrave of Hesse Cassel, one of the heads of the Protestants, was compelled to sue for mercy: notwithstanding his promise, Charles deprived him of his freedom. After having dissolved the league of Smalcalden, the emperor again occupied himself with the plan of uniting all religious parties, and, for this purpose, issued the Interim (q. v.), so valled, which was as fruitless as the measures proposed by him at the diet of Augsburg. Neither was he successful an securing the imperial crown to his son. Discord still agreated public sentiment, and a new war broke out against him. Mau-'nce of Saxony, whom he had invested with the electoral dignity, formed a lengue, which was joined by Henry II, king of trance, the successor of Francis. preparations had been made with the greatest secrecy. Charles was at Inspruck, superintending the deliberations of the council of Trent, and meditating great plans against France and Turkey. was expecting the aid of Maurice, when this prince threw off the mask, appeared suddenly at the head of an army, and m-vaded the Tyrol m 1552, while Henry H entered Lorrame. Charles was near being surprised in Inspruck, in the middle of a stormy night. Tormented by the gout, he escaped alone, in a litter, by difficult roads. Maurice abandoned the impesal castle to plunder, the council of Trent was dissolved, and the Protestants dictated the conditions of the treaty of Passau, in 1552. Charles was not more successful in Lorraine. He was unable to recover Metz, defended by the duke of Guise. In Italy, he lost Sienna, by a revolt. He withdrew to Brussels, where hard pressed 7 \*

by his enemies, and suffering from the gout, he became gloomy and dejected, and; for several months, concealed himself from the sight of every one, so that the report of his death was spread through Europe. His last exertions were directed against France, which constantly repelled his as-The diet of Augsburg, m 1555, confirmed the treaty of Passau, and gave the Protestants equal tights with the Catholics. Charles saw all his plans frustrated, and the number of his enemies increasing. He resolved to transfer his hereditary states to his son Philip. Having convened the estates of the Low Countries at Louvain, in 1555, he explained to them the reasons of his resolution, asserted that he had sacrificed himself for the interests of religion and of his subjects, but that his strength was madequate to further exertion, and that he should devote to God the remander of his days. He then turned to Philip, who had thrown himself on his knees, and kissed the hand of his father; reminded him of his duties, and made him swear to labor incessantly for the good of the people. He then gave him his blessmg, embraced him, and sunk back exhausted on his chair. At that time, Charles conferred on Philip the sovereignty of the Netherlands alone. Jan. 15, 1556, he conferred upon him, in like manner, the Spanish throne, reserving for himself merely a pension of 100,000 ducats. The remaining time that he spent in the Netherlands he employed in reconciling his son with France, and effected the conclusion of a truce. Having made an unsuccessful attempt to induce his brother Ferdmand to transfer the imperial crown to the head of his son, he sent a solemn embassy to Germany, to announce to the electors his abdication; after which he embarked at Zealand, and landed on the come of Biscay. It is said that he threw hunself on the earth on landing, kissed it, and exclaimed, "Naked I left the womb of my mother, and maked I return to thee, thou common mother of mankind." He had selected for his residence the monastery of St. Justus, near Placensia, in Estremadura, and here he exchanged sovereignty, dominion and pomp for the quiet and solitude of a-cloister. His amusements were confined to short rides, to the cultivation of a garden, and to mechanical labors. It is said that he made wooden clocks, and, being unable to make two clocks go exactly alike, was reminded of the folly of his efforts to bring a number of men to the same sentiments. He attended religious services twice every day, read books of devotion, and, by de-

grees, fell into such dejection, that his faculties seemed to suffer from it. He renounced the most innocent pleasures, and " observed the rules of the monastic life in all their rigor. In order to perform an extraordinary act of piety, he resolved to relebrate his own obsequies. Wrapped in a shroud, and surrounded by his retinue, he laid himself in a coffin, which was placed in the middle of the church. funeral service was performed, and the . monarch mingled his voice with those of the clergy, who prayed for him. After the last sprinkling, all withdrew, and the doors were closed. He remained some time in the coffin, then rose, threw himself before the altar, and returned to his cell, where he spent the night in deep meditation. This ceremony hastened his death. was attacked by a fever, of which he died, at the age of 59 years, Sept. 21, 1558.— Charles had a noble air, and refined manp rs. He spoke little, and smaled seldom. I irm of purpose; slow to decide; prompt to execute; equally rich in resources, and sagacious in the choice of them; gifted with a cool judgment, and always master of himself, he steadily pursued his purposes, and easily triumphed over obstacles. Circumstances developed his genius, and Although his want of made lam great faith was notorious, he imposed, by the semblance of magnamenty and succerty, even on those who had already experienced his periody. An acute judge of men. i.e knew how to use them for his purposes. It is improbable that it was his intention to establish a universal monarchy. In misfortune he appears greater than in prosperity. He protected and encouraged the , arts and sciences, and is said to have picked up a brush, which had fallen fidne the hand of Titian, with the words, "Titian is worthy of being served by an emperor." . By his wife Eleonora, daughter of Enfanuel, king of Portugal, he had one son, afterwards Pinhp II, and two daughters. He had, also, several natural children.-Charles V is one of the most remarkable characters in history. He exhibited no talents in his youth, and, in after life, when his armes in Italy were winning battle after battle, he remained quietly in Spain, apparently not much interested in these victories; but, even in his early youth, his be morto was, not yet (nondum). It was not ; till his 30th year, that he showed himself active and independent; but, from this time to his abdication, he was, throughout, amountch. No minister had a marked influence over him. He was indefatigable in business, weighing the reasons on both

sides of every case with great minuteness; very slow in deciding; unchangeable of purpose; so that he once said to a courtier, who praised him for his perseverance and firmness, that he sometimes insisted upon things not right. Granvella was the only person who possessed his entire confidence. (See Granvella.) Wherever he was, he imitated the customs of the country, and won the favor of every people except the Germans. Among them he was not liked, owing to his want of the frankness which they expected in their emperor. Charles was slow in pumshing, as well as in rewarding; but, when he did punish, it was with severity; when he rewarded, it was with munificence. His health early declined. In his 40th year, he felt himself weak. His sufferings from the gont were extreme: he could not even open a letter without pain. After his mother's death, he thought sometimes that he heard her voice, calling to hun to follow her. It is said that, when arming for battle, he trembled; but, in the heat of the engagement, was as cool as if it were impossible for an emperor to be killed. We know of no work, in which the character of Charles has been delineated with more truth than in the valuable production of Mr. Ranke, professor in the university of Berlin,—The Princes and Nations of the Fouth of Europe mothe sixteenth and seventeenth Centuries (Hamburg, 1827). Among the numerous sources of the history of Charles V, we would mention. Hormayr's Aus durchaus ungedruckten Papictin, in his Archiv. fur Geogr Historic, &c. (Jalug. 1810). The work of Robertson is too well known to need recommendation.

CHALLES VI, the second son of the emperor Leopold I, was born Oct. 1, 1685. His father destined him for the Spanish throne. The last prince of the house of Hapsburg, Charles II, disregarding the house of Austria, whose right to the Spanish throne was undoubted, according to the key of inheritance by descent, had, by his will, made Philip, duke of Anjou, second grandson of Louis XIV, heir of the Spanish monarchy, and, after the death of Charles II, Nov. I, 1700, Philip had taken possession of the vacant kingdom. England and Holland united against him, and this alliance was soon joined by the German empire, Portugal and Savoy. Charles was proclaimed king of Spain, at Vienna, in 1703, and proceeded, by way of Holland, to England, from whence, in January, 1704, he set sail, with 12,000 men, for Spain, which was almost wholly

Catalonia. He succeeded in making himself master of Barcelona; but he was soon besieged there by his rival Philip V. The French had already taken Mont Jouy, preparations were making for an assault on the city, and it seemed as if Charles could not escape being captured. Never-\* theless, at the head of a garrison of hardly 2000 men, he made the most obstinate resistance, till the long-expected English fleet appeared, which put to flight the 12 French ships that blockaded the harbor, and landed a body of troops, which compelled the French speedily to raise the riege. This event was followed by alternate reverses and successes. Twice benefit of commerce. He visited, in per-Charles reached Madrid, and twice was be driven from the city. The first time, m 1706, he caused himself to be proclaimed king, in the capital, under the name of Charles III. He had been a second time compelled to flee to the walls of Barcelona, when he was informed of the death of his brother Joseph L. According to the will of Leopold, this event placed the double crown of Charles V on his head; to his claims on Spain, it added the more certain possession of the Austran dominions. But the allies were averse to seeing so much power united in the same hands. Charles repaired to Germany by way of Italy, and, on his arrival, learned that, at Eugene's suggestion, lie had also been elected emperor. His coronation took place at Frankfort, in December, 1711, and, in the following year, \* he received, at Presburg, the crown of Hungary. At the same time, he still re-tained the empty title of king of Spain. He now prosecuted, under the conduct of Eugene, the Spanish war of succession, which his brother had carried on with so much success in the Netherlands; but Marlborough's disgrace, and the retreat of the English army, having resulted in a defeat at Deman, the allies concluded a pages, to cade to them, by the peace of peace with France at Utrecht, in 1713 in Belgrade, in 1739, Walachia, and the spite of all the efforts of the emperor to Austrian part of Servia, with Belgrade. prevent it. He was obliged, in the following year, to sign the treaty of Rastadt. This treaty secured him in the possession of Milan, Mantua, Sardma and the Netherlands. Soon after, in June, 1715, the Turks declared war against Venice. The Turks declared war against Venice. emperor undertook the defence of this republic. This brave armies, led by Eugene, achieved decisive victories at Peterwardein and Belgrade. But, as the Spaniards menaced Italy, Charles concluded, in 1718, the peace of Passarowicz, by which he obtained Belgrade, the north of

occupied by the French, and landed in Servia, and Temeswar. Caminal Alberoni, who was at the head of the cabinet of. Madrid, involved Austria, by his schemes, in a new war. But the quadruple alliance, concluded at London in 1718, terminated the war with the removal of this minister, in 1720. To secure his dominions to his daughter Maria Theresa, in default of male heirs, Charles strove to induce the various powers to guaranty the pragmatic sanction, which settled the succession in her favor. He succeeded, by degrees, in gaining the concurrence of all the European powers. The emperor availed himself of a short period of peace to establish various institutions for the son, the coasts of Istria, where he caused roads and harbors to be constructed, and vessels to be built. His plans respecting the Indian trade in the Netherlands had not the same success, and he was compelled to sacrifice them to the pretensions of the maritime powers. The reign of this prince, by nature a lover of peace, was marked with perpetual agitations. The succession to the Polish throne, after the death of Augustus II, in 1733, disturbed the peace of Europe. Charles, with Russia, supported the son of this prince; be: France and Spain declared themselves for Stanislaus Leczinsky. From this arose a bloody war, which termnated, in 1735, in the loss of the Two Sicilies and a part of the duchy of Milan. Austria received Tuscany in exchange for Lorrane, and obtained Parius. Hardly had Charles finished this war, when his alhance with Russia involved him anew in a war with the Turks. In 1737, his troops, under field-marshal Seckendorf, invaded Servia, without any declaration of war, and occupied Nissa. But the Turks renewed their attack with a contunually augmented force, and obliged the emperor, after three unsuccessful cam-Charles died Oct. 20, 1740, at a time when he was employed in the nuprovement of his distracted finances, and was about putting the last hand to the pragmatic sanction, by causing the grand-duke of Tuscany, his son-m-law, to be chosen king of the Romans.

CHARLES VII (properly Charles Albert), king of the Romans, born at Brussels, in the year 1697, was the son of Maximilian Enmanuel, elector of Bavaria, then governor of the Spanish Netherlands. His youth' was spent at the imperial court, and,

5000.

in the war against the Turks, he commanded the army of auxiliaries sent by his father. In 1722, he married the daughter of Joseph 1, having previously renounced all rights which this marriage might give him to the succession to the throne of Austria. In 1726, he succeeded his father as elector of Bavaria. He was one of the princes who protested against the pragmatic sanction, guarantied, in 1732, by the diet of Ratisbon, and, in consequence, concluded a defensive alhance with Saxony. After the death of Charles VI (q. v.), in 1740, he refused to acknowlodge Maria Theresa as his heress, founding his own claims to the succession on a testainent of Ferdinand I. He was supported by the king of France, with a considerable force. In 1741, he was recog-'nised, at Lintz, as arch-duke of Austria. The obstacles thrown in his way by cardural Fleury, who wished not to dismeniber the Austrian monarchy, as well as the want of artillery and ammunition, prevented him from getting possession of Vienna. On the other hand, he took Prague, where he was crowned and proclaimed king of Bohema. In 1742, he was unanimously elected king of the Romans: he made a solemn entry into Frankfort, and was crowned by his brother, the elector of Cologne. But fortune soon deserted him. The armes of Maria Theresa reconquered all Upper Austria, and overwhelmed Bavaria. was necessary to abandon Bohemia. Charles fled to Frankfort, and convoked. a diet, when an attack of the king of Prussia on Maria Theresa allowed him to return to Munich in 1744, in which gity he died in January, 1745, exhausted by grief and disease. He was succeeded in the electorate by his son Maximulan Joseph, in the experial dignity by Francis I, husband of Maria Theresa.

CHARLES THE BOLD, duke of Burguidy, son of Philip the Good and Isabella of Portugal, born at Dijon, Nov. 10, 1433, at first bore the name of count of Charolais, under which he distinguished himself in the battles of Rupelmonde, in 1452, and of Morbeque, in 1453. He was of a violent, impetuous disposition, sometimes breaking out into fury and early displayed that unhappy ambition, which was the source of his errors and misfortunes. His dislike of the lords of the house of Croy, the favorites of his father, was memmountable; and, being unable to procure their disgrace, he withdrew from the court, and went to Holland. He was again reconciled, however, with his father,

whom he inspired with his own hatred of Louis XI, and placed himself at the head of the party then forming against that, monarch. Having passed through Flanders and Artois, he crossed the Somme at the head of 26,000 men, and appeared before Paris. The king sent the bishop of the city, Alain Chartier, to reproach him for waging war against his sovereign. But the heir of Burgundy answered, "Tell your master, that against a prince who makes use of the dagger and poison, there are always sufficient grounds of war, and that, in marching against him, One is very sure of finding, on the way, companions enough. Moreover, I have taken ue arms solely at the urgent request of the people, nobility and princes: these are my accomplices!" Louis met him at Montiheri. Charles broke through one wing of the royal army, and allowed him. self to be carried on too far in pursuit of the fugitives. Surrounded by 15 gens d'armes, who had airendy killed his master of the horse, he received a wound, but refused to surrender; performed produgies of valor, and thus gave his soldiers time to come to his release. From this time, Charles conceived so high an opinion of his talents for war, that the greatest reverses could not cure him of it. He succeeded his father in 1467, and immediately engaged in a war with the citizens of Laege, whom he conquered and treated with extreme severity. Before this undertaking he had been obliged to restore to the curzens of Ghent the privileges which had been taken from them by Philip the Good. He now revoked his forced concessions, caused the leaders of the insurrection to be executed, and imposed a large fine on the city. In 1468, he married Margaret of York, sister of the king of England, and re-olved numediately to renew the civil war in France; but Louis disarmed him by giving him 120,000 crowns of gold. Oct. 3 of the same you. the monarch and the duke had a meeting at Peronne, in order to adjust their differences. There the duke learned that the mhabitants of Liege, insugated by the king, had rebelled anew, and made them-selves masters of Tongres. Charles was emaged. In vain did Louis on oath protest his innocence; he was imprisoned and strictly guarded. After hesitating long between the most violent measures, the dake finally compelled the king to sign a treaty, the most disgraceful condition of which was, that he should march with Charles against the city of Liege, which he had himself excited against the

Charles encamped before Liege, duke. in company with the king: the city was taken by storm, and abandoned to the fury of the soldiers. Such success rendered the mind of the duke utterly oldurate, and added the last traits of that inflexible, sangumary character, which made him , the scourge of his neighbors, and led to his own destruction. Edward IV conterred on him, in 1470, the order of the garter. Shortly after, he received, in Flanders, Edward himself, who came to Shortly after, he received, in seek an asylum with the duke. Charles gave him money and ships to return to About the end of the same year, the war between the king of France and the duke of Burgundy was reflewed; and never did Charles show himself more deserving of the name of the Bold, or Rush, than in this war. Forced to sue for a truce, he nevertheless soon took up. arms anew, accused the king, publicly, of magic and poleoning, and, at the head of 24,000 men, crossed the Somme. took the city of Nesle by storm, caused fire to be set to it, and, as he saw it burning, said, with barbarous coolness, "Such are the fruits of the tree of war.". An enemy to tranquility, insensible to pleasure, loving nothing but destruction and master of the art of procuring allies. Charles, who desired to be equal to Louis XI in dignity and rank, as well as in power, formed the plan of enlarging his dominons on the Rhine, and elevating his states into a kingdom, under the name of Belgie Gaul. He visited the emperor Frederic III, at Treves, to obtain the fitle of king and vicar-general of the empire. which the emperor had promised him, on condition that he should marry his daughter to the archduke; but, as neither would enter first into obligations, they separated broken off. Lows, meanwhile, involved Charles in greater embarras-ments, by excumg against him Austria and the Swiss. Charles now determined to dethrone him, and, for this purpose, made an alliance with the king of England; but, being compelled to hasten to the aid of his relative, the bishop of Cologne, he lost ten months before News, which he besieged in vain, and then hastened to Lorraine, to take revenge on the duke Rene, who, at the insugation of France, had declared war against him. Having completed the conquest of Lorrane by the taking of Nancy, in 1475, he turned his arms against the Swiss; and, notwithstanding the representations of these peaceful mountain-

eers who told him that all that he could find among them would not be worth so much as the spurs of his horsemen, he took the city of Granson, and put to the sword 800 men, by whom it was defended. But these cruckies were soon avenged by the signal victory which the Swiss obtained near the same city, March 3, 1476. The loss of this buttle plunged Charles into a gloomy dejection, which disturbed his mind and his health. With a new army, he returned to Switzerland, and lost the battle of Murten (Morat), June 22d. The duke of Lorraine, who had fought in the army of the Swiss, led the victors to the walls of Nancy, which surrendered Oct. 6th. At the first information of this siege, Charles marched to Lorrame, to retake the env of Nancy from the duke Rene. He intrusted to the count of Campo-Basso the charge of the first attack, and, on learning that this officer was a traitor, he regarded the information as a snare. Campo-Basso protracted the siege, and gave René time to come up with 20,000 men. On the approach of this army, he deserted, with his troops, to the enemy, so that the army of Charles now consisted of only 4000 men. Against the advice of his council. Charles persisted in risking bloodshed, and, notwithstanding his pride, «battle with integral forces. On the 5th or 6th Jan., 1477 (John von Muller himself is in doubt respecting the day, the two armes not: the wing of the Burgundian was broken through and dispersed, and the centre, commanded by the duke in person, was attacked in front and flank. As Charles was putting on his belinet, the gilded hon, which served for a crest, fell to the ground, and he exclaimed, with surpuse, " Ecce magnum signum Dei!" Defeated, and carried along with the current of fugutives, he fell, with his horse, into a ditch, where he waskilled by the in dissatisfaction, and the negotiation was. Thrust of a lance, in the 44th year of his age! His body, covered with blood and mire, and with the head imbedded in the ice, was not found till two days after the pbattle, when it was so distigured that for some time his own brothers did not recogmse it. He was finally known by the length of his beard and nails (which he had suffered to grow since his defeat at Morat), as well as by the scar of a swordcut, which he had received in the battle of Montlhern. With this prince expired the feudal government in Burgundy. Charles was not without good qualities. In the government of his people, we find no traces of the severity with which he treated himself, and his disposition made him attentive to the administration of justice. He was buried at Nancy, at the command of the duke of Lorraine. In 1550, Charles V, his great-grandson, caused his remains to be conveyed to Bruges. He was married three times, but left only one daughter, Maria, heiress of Burgundy, by Isabella of Bourbon, his second wife (See Maximilian I.)—Compare the work of the baron de Barante, peer of France, Hist. des Ducs de Bourgogne de la Maison de Valois (Paris, 1824, 10 vols.). In Quentin Durward, sir Walter Scott has described the character of Charles, and some of the quarrols between him and Louis of France.

CHARLES VII, kmg of France. (See

France, and Joan of Arc.)

CHARLES IX, king of France, son of 'Henry II and Catharine of Medici, born in 1550, at St. Germain-en-Laye, ascended the throne at the age of 10 years, after the death of his brother Francis II. No regency was appointed, and it was deemed sufficient to write to the parliament, through the young prince, that he had requested his mother to undertake the administration of the public affairs; and the parliament acquiesced in this resolution, to avoid exciting new contests between the Guises and the princes of the blood. Catharine consented that the king of Na-. varre should be appointed governor-gencral of the realm, as she was too well aware of the weakness of his character to tear it. In order to gratify her ambition, she resolved to throw every thing into confusion. (See Catharine de Medici.)— The Guises soon saw that they must oppose a Catholic league to the political associations of the Calvinists. (See Guisc.)— The cruel persecutions against the Huguenots now broke out. (See Bartholomew's Day, St.)—The duke of Guise, who obtained possession of the person of the young king, was shot by an assassin before Orleans, in February, 1563. In his last moments, he advised the ling and the queen mother to negotiate with the par-This advice was followed; a treaty was signed, March 19, and Havre was taken from the English, July 27. king, who was the same year declared of age, visited the provinces in company with his mother. At Bayonne, he had a meeting with his sister Isabella, the wife of Philip II of Spain., This excited such enspicions in the Calvinists, that they took up arms, and immediately formed the plan of attacking the king on his return to Paris. Being warned in season, he escaped the danger; but this plot could not fail to arouse the hatred of Charles, who

ed than blamed for his too great confidence in his artful mother. After the battle of St. Denis, 1567, in which the constable of Montmorenei lost his life, Catharine entered into negotiations for peace. But the Calvinists reserved a part of the places which they were to have surrendered, and continued to keep up a communication with England and . the German princes. A new civil war soon broke out. Notwithstanding the jealousy of Charles, Catharine placed the tluke of Anjou at the head of the royal army. The prince of Conde having been shot in the battle of Jarnac, in 1569, and the admiral Coligni having been defeated at Montcontour, in the same year, the king concluded peace, in 1570, on terms which were so favorable to the Calvinists, that they seem even to have suspected treachery under them. The heads of that party did not therefore all appear at court when Charles celebrated his marriage with Elizabeth, the daughter of Maximihan II. By degrees this distrust disappeared, and the marriage of the young king of Navarre (afterwards Henry IV) with Margaret, sister of Charles IX. seemed to banish every suspicion. This marriage took place August 18, 1572. On the 22d, the first attempt was made on the life of Coligni, and on the 24th began that massacre known under the name of the massacre of St. Bartholomew's, from having taken place on the night of the festival of that saint. Civil war broke out for the fourth time, and Catharme now became aware of the errors of her policy. Charles could no longer conceal his eversion to her, and was on the point of asseming himself the reins of government, when he died, childless, in 1574. He was succeeded by his brother Henry Charles was brave, indefatigable, ambitions, of a lively, penetrating genus, and loved the sciences. The crucktes which disgrace his reign should be faid to the charge of his mother rather than lamself.

CHARLES X, Philip, king of France and Navarre, brother of Louis XVI and Louis XVIII, succeeded the latter on the throne of France, Sept. 16, 1824. Till 1795, he bore the title of count of Artois; till 1824, that of monsicur. He was born at Versailles, Oct. 9th, 1757, and, in 1773, married Marin Theresa of Savoy, the sister of the countess of Provence, his brother's wife, who bore him the duke of Angoulème (q. v.) and the duke of Berri (q. v.) and died June 2d, 1805. He was educat-

ed at the court of Louis XV, and manifested in his youth an amiable disposition, and a capacity for mental improvement, together with a fondness for the fetes then fashionable at Versailles, and for expensive pleasures. At a ball in the opera-hall, in 1778, he pulled off the mask of the duchess of Bourbon. This affront gave rise to a duel with the duke of Bourbon, related by the baron Bezenval in his Mémoires. In 1782, the count of Artors served as a volunteer in the camp of St. Roch, before Gibraltar, and was created chevalier of St. Louis. In 1787, as president of a bureau of the notables, he pursued different views from his brothers, the king and the count of Provence. The people, therefore, believed that he was opposed to the reform, which was so umversally desired; and, when, with the count of Provence, he had completed the registration of the stamp and land tax acts, manifested their ill will by an attack on his person. Two days after the 14th of July, 1789, he and the prince of Conde gave the signal for the fatal emigration, from which so much imsery has spring. The count of Artois repaired to Turn, had an interview with the emperor Leopold in Mantua, resided some time at Worms, at Bruck near Bonn, at Brussels and Vienna. The monarch assembled at Pılıntz (q. v.) afterwards promised hun to support the cause of his family. Louis. XVI took the oath to maintain the constitution, Sept. 14th, 1791, and invited the French princes who were at Coblentz to return to France; but they refused to obey, and protested against the new constitution-equally disobedient to their country and their king. Hereupon the legislative assembly of the nation withdrew from the count of Artors, May 19, 1792, the appanage of 1,000,000 francs, assigned him by the constitution, and referred his creditors to his estates. The prince was then at Turm, from whence he excited commotions at Lyons, and in other parts of France. He then undertook the command of a corps of emigrants, which, in connexion with the Prussian army, invaded Champagne. After the issue of this campaign, so unfortunate for the Bourbons, the count retired to Hamm, in Westphalia, where, after the death of Louis XVI, he was appointed by his brother, who had taken the title of regent, licutenant-general of the kingdom. He now solicited the assistance of the empress Catharine, who received him at her court with the greatest distinction, and presented him with a valuable sword, " pour le

rétablissement et la gloire de votre maison. The English government gave him, at the end of 1794, a pension of £15,000 sterling. He had himself sent his diamonds, and the sword which Louis XVI had given his son, to marshal Broglio, to relieve, by the sale of them, the most pressing wants of the emigrants. As Russia seemed disposed to send troops to the assistance of the French royalists, the count proceeded from Hamm, by way of Cuxhaven, to England, in July 1796, embarked from that country on board the squadron of commodore Warren, and landed on the He-Dieu Sept. 29, 1796, expecting to carry and to the chiefs of Vendee. But advices from England that the Russian auxiliary corps was not to be expected, made him-resolve to re-embark. He returned to England, where he afterwards resided uthe eastle of Edmburgh. In 1799, he left Scotland, in order to join the band of the prince of Conde in the Russian army in Switzerland; but, being informed of Korsakow's defeat and Suwarrow's retreat, h. returned to England. After the peace of Annens, he again took up his residence in Edinburgh. On the renewal of the war w. 1803, he went to London, and, subsequently, till 1809, resided at Hartwell, as e-tate which I oms XVIII had purchased In 1813, he went to the continent, to awar the result of the entry of the allies into France. In February, 1814, he crossed the Rhine, and was at Vesoul, when the complaints made by the duke of Vicenza, at the congress of Chatillon, induced him to return. After Napokon's abdication, he, as heutenant-general of the kragdon, mimediately proclaimed, in Nancy, to the French people, "the traumph of liberty the reign of the laws, the abolition of the conscription, the suppression of the droitsreunis, and the entire oblivious f the past." April 12, 1814, he entered Paris, and assumed the supreme authority till the armval of Louis XVIII, in whose name be declared to the president of the senate, April 15, that the king, his brother, would recognise for the basis of the constitutionrepresentation in two cliambers, personal liberty, freedom of the press, and other rights, for which they had been so long contending. He now entered immediately on the work of reform. He caused the papal archives and other things, taker from Rome by Napoleon, to be restored to the holy father: the cours prevotales, the tribunals of the customs, and a portion of the droits-reunis, were suppressed. The. cours previtales (q. v.) were afterwards restored for two years. He then signed the

treaty of April 23, by which France abaudoned 53 strong places occupied by French troops, 31 ships of the line and 12 frigates. Louis XVIII appointed him colonel-gen-. eral of the French national guards, and of the Swiss. Monsieur, in the same year, travelled through the southern departments, visiting Lyons, Marseilles and Avignon. When the news of Napoleon's landing in France reached Paris, Monsicur immediately proceeded to Lyons. March 8th, where, however, he found such a disposition prevailing, that he soon left the city, accompanied by a single cavalry officer. In Paris, he accompanied the king, March 16, to the chamber of deputies, and swore, "in the name of honor, fidelity to the king and charter." It being impracticable to defend Paris, he, with the duke of Berri, followed the king to the Netherlands. After the return of the king, July 7, 1815, he presided in the electoral college of the capital, by which means he conciliated somewhat the popular favor. On the opening of the chambers, Oct. 7, Mon-· our. as well as the other princes, renewtheir oath of fidelity to the charter. It took a part in several subjects brought before the chamber of peers, as president of a bureau; but, of late years, the French princes have made no use of their seat and vote in the chamber. In 1818, he resigned the command of the national guards. He was, moreover, the founder and distributor of the decoration of the lily. The party, in particular, of the ultra-royalists, and of the ultra-montanists, seems to have attached itself to him or to his friends; and, during the last part of the teign of Louis XVIII, he had an important influence on the course of public affairs and the appointment of infinisters On the day his brother's death, whom he had not left for a moment during the two last days of his life, he was received, Sept. 16th, 1824, with the arcient and customary cry " Le roi est mort : Vive le roi !" Sept. 17. the members of the royal family, the diplomatic corps, and the first civil authorities, rendered him their homage. The duke of Angoulème now assumed, in conformity with ancient usage, the title of dauphin; his wife was called dauphiness; the duchess of Bern, madame. Charles X immediately conferred on the house of Orleans the title altesse royale. He was received with applause when he made his public entry on horseback into Paris from St. Cloud, Sept. 27. Some traits of goodness of heart, marks of kindness, and peculiar expressions, indicating a

certain chivalric feeling and French tone of sentiment, gained him favor. The greatest impression was made by the restoration of the freedom of the press with respect to periodicals, Sept. 29, 1824. The former ministry, under Villèle (q. v.), was, however, retained. But the dauphin received a seat and voice in the ministerial councils, and the count of Clermons-Tonnere was anade minister of war, and the duke of Doudonwille minister of the , king's household. Sept. 22, 1824, the session of the chambers was opened by Charles X. The same was done by him lan. 31st, 1826. With respect to the measures of his reign, the indemnification of the emigrants, the restriction of the ultra-montane and Jesuit parties, the acknowledgment of the independence of Hayti, the process of Ouvrard, the law of sacrilege, of substitutions, &c., we refer to the article France. The solenin coro; nation of the king at Rheims, May 29, 1825, was an important national event, where many ancient and some ridiculous usages were revived; for instance, the vial containing the holy oil (which was brought in former ages by a dove from heaven) was again restored 18 Chaples X swore to govern according to the charter. After the death of the duke of Montporence, he appointed the duke of Riviere governor and tutor of his grandson, the duke of Bordenux, presumptive heir of the throne, and Tharm, bishop of Strasburg, a friend of the Jesuits, teacher of the prince. The first minister of the king, the count of Villèle (q. v.), had to undergo a hard contest in the chambers with the abberal and royalist opposition, especially on the subnet of the financial deficiencies, the attempts of the theocratical-Jesuitical party, and some measures respecting foreign at fairs. Strong efforts were afterwards made for the ree-tablishment of the censor-hip of the periodical press, and it was restored m 1827. Seventy-six new peers were created, because the chamber of peers find shown a spirit of opposition to M. Villele The speech of Charles, at the opening of the chamber, a short time after the battle of Navarino, excited much sensation, because it was rather favorable to the Greeks. The monarch did not, like his royal brother, the king of England, speak of the engagement as an "untoward event." August 29, 1828, and during some days following, the French general

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The splendid work Sure de S M Charles X dans la Métropole de Rhems, le 29 Mar, 1175, has been inhographed by Langlême, at Paris, from Deroy and Adam's designs.

the Greeks. Admiral de Rigny had previously assisted in the battle of Navarino, Oct. 20, 1827, as commander of the French squadron. Villèle lost his office in 1828, having become unpopular by yielding to the ultra and to the Jesuit party, as well as by his avarice. The king now appointed a ministry rather liberal in its character, the chief person of which was Portalis; but, as early as the summoned; and the disgust and jealousy, middle of 1829, he supplanted this ministry by an ultra-royalist one, under the direction of prince Polignac, who had been till then the French ambassador in London. It is believed by many, that prince Polignac is the offspring of an intrigue between the king and a princess Polignac, a lady of the court, and that Charles has long desired to make him prime minister, without regard to the character of the ministry which he should form. Thus it is said in Paris, that Polignac, before the members of the present ministry were selected, offered a place to the distinguished liberal Rover-Collard, and that, seeing he could not find support or confidence among the liberals, he decided to throw himself into the arms of the other party. consistent changes of the ministry, which bave taken place during Charles's reign, seem to indicate that he is not possessed of very great talents for government. He is said to be a strict Catholic. 'The Bourbons have much to do to win the favor of the French. They are regarded as aliens, and their conduct hitherto has been such as to strengthen this feeling. The ministry of Polignac has been very unpopular, and it is generally expected that the king will dissolve the chamber before the next session (beginning of 1830).

·CHERLES I, king of England and Scotland, was born in Scotland, in the year 1600, and was the second son of James VI and Anne of Denmark. Soon after the birth of his son, James succeed, ed to the crown of England, and, upon the death of prince Henry, in 1612, Charles was created prince of Wales. His youth appears to have passed respectably, little being recorded of him previ-ously to his romantic journey into Spain in company with Buckingham, in order to pay his court in person to the Spanish infanta. Through the arrogance of Buckingham, this match was prevented, and the prince was soon after contracted to VOL IIL

port vessels in the bay of Coron, in the of France. In 1625, he succeeded to the Morea, landed his forces, amounting to throne, on the death of his dish. ceived the kingdom embroiled in a Spanish war, and full of suspicion and dislike to the minister Buckingham. The first parliament which he summoned, being much more disposed to state grievances than grant supplies, was dissolved; and, by loans and other expedients, an expedition was fitted out against Spain, which terminated in disgrace and disappointment. In the next year, a new parliament was which prevailed between the king and this assembly, laid the foundation of the misfortunes of his reign. The house of commons impeached the minister, and the king supported him. They held fast the public purse, and he intimated a design of following new counsels, should they contume to resist his will, and suddeply and angrily dissolved them, after a short session, while they were preparing a remonstrance against the levying of tonnage and poundage without consent of parhament. Charles then began to employ his threatened mode of raising funds, by loans, benevolences, and similar unpopular proceedings; which, however purtially sanctioned by precedent, were wholly opposed to the rising notions of However this may be, the sudden and m-, envil liberty throughout the nation, and to: the constitutional doctrine, which rendered the commons the guardian and dispenser of the public treasure. His difficulties were further increased by a preposterous war with France, intended to gratify the private eminty of Buckingham, who edded to the odum against hum by an ill-fated expedition in assistance of the Huguenots of Rochelle. In 1628, the king was obliged to call a new parhament, which showed used as much opposed to arbitrary measures as its predecessor, and, after voting the supplies, prepared a bill called "A pention of right, recognising all the legal privileges of the salfect," which, notwithstanding the employment of all manner of arts and expedients to avoid it, Charles was constrained to pass into a law; and, had the concession been unequivocal and sincere, and the constitutional mode of government, which it implied, been really adopted by both sides, much that followed might have been prevented. Charles, however, by his open encouragement of the doctrines of such divines as Sibthorpe and Mainwaring, who publicly inculcated the doctrine of passive obedience, and repre-sented all limitation of kingly power as

reditious. and impious, too clearly sanctioned the jealousy of the commons, who would not, in consequence, rest in confi-dence or slacken their attacks upon Buckingham, on which account they were suddenly prorogued. The assassination of the favorite soon after, by the enthusiast Felton, removed one source of discord, and Charles became more his own minister; and some differences with his queen, which had been fornented by Buckingham, being made up, he ever after continued much under her influence. parliament, which met in January, 1628, manifested so determined a spirit against the king's claim of levying tonnage and poundage by his own authority, that it was suddenly dissolved, and Charles was determined to try to reign without one. For this purpose, having judiciously ter-nimated the pending wars between France and Spain, he ruised sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards so celebrated as lord Strafford, to the principal place in his councils. This able statesman had begun his political career in opposition to the court, but, having been gamed over, was, by his austerny, talent and fiftuness, an exceedingly fit instrument to curb, the spirit of resistance to prerogative, which had become so strong among the commons. In ecclesiastical affans, Charles, was guided by the counsels of Laud, then bishop of London, a prelate whose learning and piety were debased by supersunon and a zeal as indiscreet as intolerant. Under these counsels, some years passed away in the execution of plays for raising money without the aid of parliament, with other dangerous expedients. The arbitiary courts of high commission and stachamber, in the hands of Laud, also exercised, in finany instances, the most grieyous oppression; of which the treatment of Williams, bishop of Lincoln, and others, affords memorable tramples. 1634, ship-money began to be levied, which being strictly applied to nav&l purposes, the nation at large acquesced in it with less than usual repugnance; and some writers, who courageously attacked the court against the principle, were treated with so much severity, that others were deterred from following their example. So desperate did the cause of liberty at this time appear, that great numbers of the Puritans emigrated to New England; and, by order of the court, a ship was pre-Arthur Hazelrig, John Hampden and Oliver Cromwell. It was in 1637, not

long after this remarkable event, that Hampden commenced the career of resistance by refusing to pay ship-money; the right to levy which, without authority of parliament, he was determined to bring lictore a court of law. His cause was argued for 12 days in the court of exchequer; and, although he lost it by the decision of 8 of the judges out of 12, the discussion of the question was followed by the most important consequences in its operation, upon public opinion. It was in Scotland, however, that formal warhke opposition was destined to commence. From the beginning of his reign, Charles had endeavored to introduce into that country a hturgy copied from the English an innovation which produced the most violent turnults, and ended in the formation of the famous Corenant, in 1638, by which all classes of people mutually engaged to stand by each other. The Covenanters levied an army, which the king opposed by an fill-disciplined English force, so equivocally inclined, that, not able to trust to it, Charles agreed to a sort of pacification. The next year, he raised another army; but, his finalices being exhausted, after an intermission of Thyears, he agam assembled a parlament, who, as usual, began to state grievances préviously to growing supplies. Losing all patience, unhappily for himself and the church, the king one, more hastily dissolved it, and prosecuted several members who had distinguished themselves by their opposition. Raising money in the best manner he could decise, an English army was again made to proceed towards the north: but, being defeated by the Scots, it became obvious that affairs could no longer be managed without a parhament, and, in 1610, that do ided assembly was again summoned, which proved to be the famous long parliament, whose career forms so memorable a portion of English history. It is not within the limits of this work to give an account of the proceedings connected with the prosecution, condemnation and execution of Strafford and Land, or the various measures of reaction in regard to ship-money, tonnage and poundage, and the abolation of the imquitous courts of high commission and star chamber: suffice it to say, that Charles soon found homself reduced to a comparatively passive spectator of the ascendency of the democratical portion of the constitution, and was obliged, both in Scotland and m England, to yield to the torrent which as-sailed him. In the mean time, a flame burst out in Ireland, which had no small effect in kindling the ensuing conflagra-

ernment for the purpose of regaining their . rights. Very exaggerated accounts of the massacre of the Protestants are to be found in several of the historians. Later writers have established the fact, that the number who perished in this insurrection was very limited: The old Catholic settlers of the English pale joined the native Irish, and, to strengthen their cause, pretended to have a royal commission, and to act in defence of the king's prerogative against a puritanical and republican parhament. This pretended commission is now generally deemed a forgery; but such was the supposed partiality of Charles to popery, that this event added considerably to popular disaffection. The parliament being summoned, the king left the conduct of the war entirely to it; but it now became evident that the commons intended systematically to pursue their advantages, and to reduce the crown to a state of complete dependence. They framed a remonstrance, containing a recapitulation of all the errors of the reign; renewed an attempt for excluding bishops from the house of lords; passed ordinances against superstitious practices; and so inflamed the popular odium against the Epscorol orders, as to intumdate its members to a attending to their duty in parler, wint. Atlength, it being apparent that either the zealous adherents of prerogative, or those who were anxious to establish the government upon a more democratic basis, must give way, I harles, insugated, it is supposed, by the mudicious advice of his queen and lord Digby, caused his attorney-general to enter, in the house of peers, an accusation against five leading members of the commons, and sent a sergeant-at-arms to the house to demand them. Receiving an evasive answer, he, the next day, proceeded Innself to the house, with an armed reinuic, to seize their persons. Aware of this intention, they shad previously withdrawn; but the king's appearance with a guard caused the house to break up in great disorder and indignation. The accused members retired into the city, where a committee of the house was appointed to sit, and the city militin was undstered under a communder appointed by purhament, which also demanded the control of the army. Here the king made his last stand, the matter having now arrived at a point which arms alone could decide. The queen fled to Holland to procure ammunition, and Charles, with

tion at home. The oppressed Catholic the prince of Wales, proceeded north-population of that country, during the con-fusion of the times, rose against the gov-at York. The king was received in his progress with great demonstrations of keyalty from the gentry; and many eminent and virtuous characters, who had been the conscientious/opposers of his arbitrary measures in the first instance, new join-On the other hand, all the ' ed his party. Puritans, the inhabitants of the great trading towns, and those who had adopted republican notions of government, sided with the parhament; and in no public . contest was more private and public virtue ranged on both sides, however alloyed, as in all such cases, with ambition, bigotry and the baser passions. action of consequence was the battle of Edge-hill, and, although indecisive, it enabled the king to approach London, and produce considerable alarm. He then retired to Oxford, and negotiations were entered into which proved unavailing. Nothing decisive, however, happened against the royal side, until the battle of Marston-moor, in 1644, which was gained chiefly by the skill and valor of Cronwell. The succeeding year completed the nurof the king's affairs, by the loss of the cel-ebrated battle of Naseby. Thenceferward a series of disasters attended his aromes throughout the kingdom, and he took the resolution of throwing houself into the hands of the Scottish army, then Ning before Newark. He was received with respect, although placed under guard as a prisoner; and, a series of abortive negotiations ensuing, an agreement was made with the parliament to surrender han to their commissioners, on the payment of a large sum, claimed as arrears by the Scottish mmy. The king was accordinaly surrendered to the commissioners appointed, and was carried, in the first \* place, to Holmby-house, in Northamptonslurg; subsequently, to the head-quarters of the army at Reading, and, soon after, to Hampton-court, where he was treated with no small portion of the respect exacted by his station. In the mean time, however, the army and Independents becoming all-powerful, he was led into some fears for his personal safety, and, making his escape with a few attendants, proceeded to the southern coast. Not meeting a vessel, as he expected, he crossed over to the Isle of Wight, and put himself into the hands of Hammond, the governor, a creature of Cromwell's, by whom he was lodged in Carishrook castle. While in this remete situation, the Scots, ashamed of the manner in which they had delivered him

up, and indignant at the proceedings of the English, marched a considerable army to his relief, under the duke of Hamilton. This force, although strengthened by a large body of English royalists, was en-tirely routed and dispersed by Cromwell, . as were the insurgents in Kent and Essex by Fairfax. During this employment of the army and its leaders, a new negotiation was opened with the king in the Isle of Wight, who agreed to nearly every thing demanded of him, except the abolition of Episcopacy; and so much had it now become the interest of the parliament itself to comply with him, that a vote was at length carried, that the king's concessions were a sufficient ground for a treaty. The triumphant army, however, on its return, cleared the house by force of all the members opposed to its views; and, thereby procuring a reversal of this vote, the king's person was again seized, and, being brought from the Isle of Wight to Hurst castle, preparations were made for trying him on the capital charge of high treason against the people. As the house of lords refused to concur in a vote for this purpose, the commons declared its concurrence unnecessary; and the king, being conducted to London, and stripped of all ensigns of royalty, was brought before the court of justice, specially erected for thisunprecedented trial, on the 20th of Jan., 1649. The behavior of Charles had been calm and dignified throughout his adversity, and in no respect was it more so than Three times he objecton this occasion. ed to the authority of the court, when brought before it, and supported his refusal by clear and cogent arguments. At length, evidence being heard against hi.n., on the proof that he had appeared in arms against the parliamentary forces, sentence of death was pronounced against him. He requested a conference with both houses, which was rejected, and only three days were allowed him to preparfor his fate. 'As he left the tribunal he was in-ulted by a portion of the soldiery. and other base and unpardonable indignit ties were offered to him, which he bore with dignified equanimity. The interposition of foreign powers, the devotion of friends and ministers, who sought to save · him by taking all the blame upon themselves, were vain. After passing three days, between his condemnation and execution, in religious exercises, and in tender interviews with his friends and family, he was led to the scaffold. His execution took place before the banqueting-house, Whitehall, on the 30th of Jan., 1649,

where, after addressing the people around him with great firmness and composure, the ill-fated king submitted to the fatal stroke, Thus died Charles I, in the 49th year of his age, than whom few kings have been more distinguished for the virtues which ornament and dignify private life. He was, in an eminent degree, temperate, chaste and religious, and, although somewhat cold and reserved in demeanor, was, in fact, highly kind and affectionate, and secured the warmest attachment .of those who had access to lum. His talents were also considerable; but he shone more in suffering than in acting, and was deficient in the decision and self rehance, which are necessary to superior executive ability. His mind was cultivated by letters, and a taste for the polite arts, particularly painting, the professors of which he munificently encouraged; and the collections of works of art, which he made in his prosperity, show great judg-ment in the selection. He had also a feeling for poetry, and wrote in a good style in prose, without reference to the famous Eikon Basilike, his claim to which is now generally disputed. To all these personal and private acquirements, he joined a graceful tigure and pleasing countenance, and, under happier circumstances, would doubtless have been regarded as a very accomplished sovereign. With respect <0 his political character, as exhibited in</p> the great struggle between himself and the parhament, it is impossible not to perceive that he strove to maintain a portion of prerogative that had become incompatable with any theory of civil and religious liberty, but it is equally certain that he only sought to retain what his predecessors had possessed, and what power neyer concedes willingly. There are periods, possibly, in the history of every people, in which old and new opinions conflict, and a concussion becomes unavoidable; and it was the inisfortune of Charles to occupy the throne at a time when the developement of the representative system neces-sarily encountered the claims of prerogative. If the parliament had acquiesced in the kingly pretensions, as usually explained by Laud and the high-churchmen of the day, it would have dwindled into a mere registry of royal edicts, like those of France. On the other hand, Charles acted a part which every monarch, in his situation, may be expected to act; for a philosophical appreciation of the true nature of a political crisis is searcely to be expected from one who sits upon a throne. The most forcible accusation against

Charles is on the score of insincerity. It is asserted that he never intended to fulfil certain that some of them might justly be deemed questionable, if not demanded with a direct view to produce that conduct in the king which so naturally followed. On the whole, though many may demur to his title of martyr, few will hesitate to regard him as a victim to a crisis which the growing power of the commons, and the unsettled nature of the prerogative, rendered sooner or later inevitable. His fate, like that of the house of \* Stuart generally, exhibits the danger and absurdity of those high theoretical flotionof kingly prerogative, which, while they add very little to the real power of those whom they are intended to favor, too frequently seduce them into encounters with currents of principle and action, a resistance to which is always futile, and generally destructive.

CHARLES II, king of England and Scotland, son of Charles 1 and Henrietta Maria of France, was born in 1630. He was a refugee at the Hague on the death of his father, on which he immediately assumed the royal rate. He first intended to proceed to Ireland, but was prevented by the progress of Cromwell. He therefore listened to an invitation from the Scots, who had proclammed him their king; and, being obliged to throw himself into the hands of the rigid. Presbyterians, they subjected him to many severities and mortifications, which caused him to regard that sect ever after with extreme aversion. In 1651, he was crowned at Scone; but the approach of Cromwell, with his conquering army, soon rendered his abode in Scotland unsafe. Hoping to be joined by the English royalists, he took the spirited resolution of passing Crom-well, and entering England. He was immediately pursued by that active commander, who, with a superior army, gained the battle of Worcester; and Charles, after a variety of miniment hazards, in one of which he was sheltered for 24 hours in the branches of a spreading oak, reached Shoreham, in Sussex, and effected a passage to France. He passed some years in Paris, little regarded by the court, which was awed by the power of the English commonwealth; and this indignity induced him to retire to Cologne. is the province of history to state the circumstances that produced the restoration, which general Monk so conducted, that Charles, without a struggle, succeed-

ed at once to all those dangerous preroga-4; tives, which it had cost the nations o much the conditions imposed upon him. This blood and treasure, first to abridge, and can scarcely be denied; but it is equally then to abolish. This unrestrictive return was not more injurious to the nation than fatal to the family of the Stuarts, which, had a more rational policy prevailed, might have occupied the throne at. this moment. On the 29th of May, 1660, Charles entered his capital amidst univerral and almost frantic acclamations; and the different civil and religious parties vied with each other in loyalty and submission. His first measures were prudent and conciliatory. Hyde, lord Clarendon, . was made chancellor and prime minister; and an act of indemnity was passed, from which those alone were excepted who were immediately concerned in the late king's death. A settled revenue was accepted in lien of wardship and purveyance, and the army was reduced. In respect to religion, there was less indulgence: for not only were prelacy and the parhamentary rights of bishops restored, which was to be expected, but an act of uniformity was passed, by the conditions of which pearly all the Pre-byterian clergy were driven to a resignation of their livings. In 1662, he married the infanta of Portugal, a prodem and virtuous prineess, but in no way calculated to accours. the attection of a man like Charles. The indolence of his temper, and the expenses of his brentions way of life, soon involved han in perimary difficulties; and the un-popular sale of Dunkirk to the French was one of his post early expedients to relieve himself. In 1663, a rupture took place with Holland, which, as it proceeded from commercial rivalry, was wiflingly supported by perhament. It was attended, in the first instance, by various naval successes; but, France and Denmark enfering into the war, as allies of the Dutch, the English were overmatched, and a Dutch fleet entered the Thames, and, proceeding up the Medway, burnt and destroyed ships as high as Chatham. Such was the naval disgrace of a reign, which, on many other accounts, is probably the most nationally discreditable one in the English annals. The domestic calamities of a dreadful plague, in 1665, and of the great fire of London, in 1006, added to the disasters of the period. Soon after, Clarendon, who had become very unpopular, and was personally disagreeable to Charles, was dismissed, and sought shelter . from his enemies by a voluntary exile. A triple alliance between England, Holland and Sweden, for the purpose of checking

the ambition of Louis XIV, followed. It faction, met with universal belief; and, in did honor to the political talents of sir William Temple, and was one of the few public measures of the reign which de-The thoughtless serve approbation. profusion of Charles, however, soon brought him into a condition which rendered him the mere pensioner of Louis; by whose secret aid he was supported in all his attempts to abridge the freedom of his people. In 1670, he threw houself into the hands of the five unprincipled ministers, collectively denominated the cabal, who supported him in every attempt to make himself independent of parhament. A visit which Charles received from his sister, the duchess of Orleans, was rendered subscreent to Trench policy, by means of one of her attendant ladies, a beautiful Frenchwoman. This female made, as was intended, a conquest of Charles, who created her duches of Portsmouth; and, amidst all his other attachments, she retained an influence oper him which kept him steadily attached to France. The party troubles of this reign commenced, about this time, by the open declaration of the duke of York, pre-unptive heir to the crown, that he was a convert to the Roman Catholic religion. Soon after, the ministry broke the triple alliance, and planted a rupture with the Dutch; and, as the king did not choose to apply to parhament for money to carry on the projected war, he caused the exchequer to be shut up in January, 1672, and, by several other disgraceful and arbitrary proceedings, gave great disgust and alarm The naval operations to the nation. against the Durch were by no means successful, and, a new parhament being called, which strongly expressed the discontent of the nation, the cabal was dissolved, and a separate wace made with Holland in 1674. Divisions in the cabinet, fluctuations in the king's measure-, and parhamentary contests, followed, and occupied the next three years, until, in 1677, Charles performed a popular act, by mare rying his niece, the princess Mary, to the prince of Orange. By taking some decided steps in favor of the Dutch, he also forwarded the peace of Nimeguen, in 1678. The same year was distinguished by the pretended discovery of the celebrated popish plot, for the assassuation of the king, and the introduction of the Catholic, religion. Notwithstanding the infamous 1 characters of Oates and Bedloe, and the improbable nature of their disclosures, their tale, supported by the general stepicion of the secret influence of a Catholic

relation thereto, the parliament exhibited nearly as much credulity and heat as the vulgar, Many Catholic lords were committed; Coleman, the duke of York's secretary, and several priests, were hanged; and a venerable nobleman, the earl of Stafford, was beheaded. The duke of York thought fit to retire to Brussels, and a bill for his exclusion from the throne passed the house of commons. was the state of the country, that Charles was obliged to give way to some popular measures, and the great palladium of civil liberty, the habeas corpus bill, passed during this session. The temper of the parhament was so much excited, that the king first prorogued and then dissolved it. The court now sought to establish a balance of parties; to distinguish which, the terms whig and tory were about this time invented. In 1680, a new parliament as sembled, and the commons again passed the exclusion bill, which was rejected by the lords. This parliament was also dissolved in the next year, and a new one called at Oxford, which proved so restiff, that a sudden dissolution of it ensued, and, like his father, Charles determined henceforward to govern without one. By the aid of the tory gentry and the clergy, he obtained loyal addresses from all parts of the kingdom, and attachment to high monarchical principles came again into vogue. The charge of plots and conspiracies was now brought against the Presby-A person named College was evauted upon the same infiguous evidence as had been previously turned agains, the Catholics; and the famous earl of Shahesbury, who hended the popular party, was brought to trial, but acquitted., The nonconformists, generally, were also treated with much rigor; and a step of great moment, in the progress to arbitrary power, was the instituting sants at law (quo warrantos) against most of the corpitrations in the kingdom, by which they were antimidated to a resignation of their charters, in order to receive them back so modelled us to render them much more dependent than before. These rapid strides towards the destruction of liberty at length produced the celebrated Rychouse plot, the parties to which certainly intended resistance; but that the assessination of the king was ever formally projected; seems very doubtful. It certainly formed no part of the intention of lord William Russel, whose execution, with that of Algernon Sidney, on account of the plot, forms one of the striking events

of this disgraceful reign. Charles was, at this time, as absolute as any sovereign in Europe; and, had he been an active prince, the fetters of tyranny might have been completely riveted. Scotland, which, at different periods of his reign, had been driven into insur-rection by the arbitrary attempts to restore Episcopacy, was at length completely dragooned into submission; and the relies of the Covenanters were sup-pressed with circumstances of great bar-barity. It is said, however, that Charles was becoming uneasy at this plan, which was chiefly supported by the bigoted aus? terity of the duke of York; and that he had made a resolution to relax, when he expired, from the consequences of an apoplectic fit, in Feb., 1685, in the fifty-fifth year of his age and twenty-fifth of his reign. At his death, he received the sacrament, according to the rates of the Roman church, and thus proved himself to have been, during the whole of his life, as hypocritical as profligate. The character of Charles II requires little analysis. He was a confirmed sensualist and voluptuary; and, owing to the example of him and his court, his reign was the era of the most dissolute manners that ever prevailed The stage was an open m England. school of licentionsness, and polite literature was altogether infected by it. Charles was a man of wit, and a good judge of certain kinds of writing, but was too deficient in sensibility to feel either the subhine or the beautiful, in composition; neither was he generous even to the writers whom he applauded. He possessed an easy good nature, but united with it a total indifference to any thing but his own pleasure: and no man could be more destitute of honor or generosity. His ideas of the relation between king and subject were evinced by his observation on Landerdale's cruelties in Scotland :-- "I perceive," said he, "that Lauderdale has been guilty of many had things against the people of acted in any thing contrary to my interest." Yet, with all his selfishness and demerits as a king, Charles dways preserved a share of popularity with the multitude, from the casiness of his manners. Pepys' memoirs, and other private documents, however, clearly show the opinion of the more reflecting portion of his subjects; and it is now pretty generally admitted, that, as he was himself a most dishonorable and heartless monarch and man, so his reign exhibited the English character in a more disgraceful light than any other in Brit-

ish history. It need not be added, that he left many illegitimate children, the descendants of some of whom are still among the leading peerage of the country. The fate of his most distinguished son, the ill-fated duke of Monmouth, is an affair of : history.

CHARLES EDWARD STUART. (See Ed-·ward.)

CHARLES XII, king of Sweden, born at Stockholm, June 27, 1682, was well instructed in the languages, history, geography and mathematics. He understood German, Latin and French. Curtius' history of Alexander was his favorite book. On the death of his father, in 1697, when he was but 15 years old, he was declared of age by the estates. Meanwhile, the young king showed but little inclination for business: he loved violent bodily exercises, and especially the chase of the bear. To his jealous neighbors, this seemed a favorable time to humble the pride of Sweden in the north. Frederic IV of Denmark, Augustus II of Poland, and the czar Peter I of Russia, concluded an albance which resulted in the northern war, so galled. The Danish troops first invaded the territory of the duke of Holstem-Gottorp. This prince, who had married the eldest sister of the king of Sweden, repaired to Stockholm, and asked for assistance. Charles had a particular atta buent for him, and proposed, in the council of state, the most energetic measures against Denmark. After making some arrangements respecting the internal administration, he embarked at Carls rona in May, 1700. Therty ships of the line, and a great number of small transports, strengthened by an English and Butch squadron, appeared before Copenhagen. Arrangements were making for the disembarkation, when Charles full of impatience, plunged from his boat into the water, and was the first who reached land. The Danes retired before the superior power of the enemy. Copenhagen was Scotland; but I cannot find that he has on the point of being besieged, when the peace negotiated at Travendal was signed (Aug. 8, 1700), by which the duke of Holstein was confirmed in all the rights of which it had been attempted to deprive him. Thus ended the first enterprise of Charles XII, in which he exhibited as much untelligence and courage as disinterestedness. He adopted, at this time, that severe and temperate mode of life, to which he ever remained true, avoiding relaxation and medes amusements; wine was banished from his table; at times coarse bread was his only food; he often slept in his clouk

on the ground; a blue coat, with copper buttons, was his whole wardrobe; he wore large boots, reaching above his knees, and gloves of buffalo skin. respect to the female sex, he manifested the greatest indifference, and no woman ever had any influence over him. thus checking Denmark, the attacks of Augustus and Peter wore to be repelled. The former was besieging Riga, the latter menaced Narva and the country situated about the gulf of Finland. Without returning to his capital, which, in fact, he never revisited, Charles caused 20,000 men to be transported to Lavonia, and went to meet the Russians, whom he found, 80,000 strong, in a fortified camp, under the walls of Narva. On the 30th Nov., 1700, between eight and ten thou-, sand Swedes placed themselves in order of battle, under the fire of the Russians, and the engagement began. On the previous evening, Peter had left his camp on pretence of bringing up reinforcements. In less than a quarter of an hour, the Russian camp was taken by storm. Thurty thousand Russians perished on the field or threw themselves into the Narva; the rest were taken prisoners or dispersed. After this victory, Charles crossed the Dwina, attacked the intrenchments of the Saxons, and gained a decisive victory. Charles might now have concluded a 'peace, which would have made him the arbiter of the North; but, instead of so doing, he pursued Augustus to Poland, and determined to take advantage of the discontent of a great part of the nation, for the purpose of dethroning him - Augustus attempted in vain to enter into negotianons; in vain did the countess Komgsmark, mistress of Augustus, endeayor to obtain an interview with Charles, and disarm the Swedish hero by her beauty. Charles refused to negotiate with the king or to speak with the countess. The war continued; the Swedes gained a brilliant victory at Chisau; in 1703, all Poland was in the possession of the conquerors; the cardinal primate declared the throne vacant; and, by the influence of Charles, the new choice fell on Stamslaus Leczinsky. Augustus hoped to be secure in Saxony, as Peter had meanwhile occupied Ingria, and founded St. Petersburg, at the mouth of the Neva. But the victor of Narva de-pised an enemy on whom he hoped, nooner or later, to take an easy revenge, and invaded Saxony. At Altranstadt (q. v.), he dictated the conditions of peace, in 1706. The Livonian Patkul (a. v.), who was the prime mover of the

alliance against Sweden (at that time Peter's ambassador in Dresden), was delivered up to him, on his demand, and was broken on the wheel. It was, with justice, a subject of astonishment, that a prince, till then so magnanimous, could stoop to such intemperate revenge. other respects, Charles exhibited, during his stay in Saxony, moderation and mag-nanimity. He subjected his troops to the strictest discipline. Several ambassadors and princes visited the camp of the king at Altranstads, among whom was Marlborough, who sought to discover Charles's plans, and convinced himself that the victorious hero would take no part in the great centests of the South. The king of Sweden, however, before he left Germany, required the emperor to grant to the Lutherans in Silesia perfect freedom of conscience; and the requisition was comphed with. In Sept., 1707, the Swedes They were 43,000 strong, left Saxony. well clothed, well disciplined, and enriched by the contributions imposed on the conquered. Six thousand men remained for the protection of the king of Poland: with the rest of the army Charles took the shortest rottle to Moscow. But, having reached the region of Smolensk, he altered his plan, at the suggestion of the Cossack herman Mazeppa, and proceeded to the Ukrame, in the hope that the Cossacks would join him. But Peter laid waste then country, and the proscribed Mazeppa could not procue the promised aid. The difficult marches, the want of provisions, the perpetual attacks of the enemy, and the Severe cold, weakened Charles's army in an uncommon degree. General Lowenhaupt, who was to bring reinforcements and provisions from Livonia, arrived with only a few troops, exhausted by the march, and by continual skirmshes with the Rus-~i.iii~. Pultawa, abundantly furnished with stores, was about to be invested. when Peter appeared with 70,000 mex. Charles, in reconnouring, was dangerously wounded in the thigh; consequently, in the battle of June 27th, O. S. (July 8th), 1709, which changed the fortunes of the Swedish hero and the fate of the North, he was obliged to issue his commands from a litter, without being able to encourage his soldiers by his presence. This, and still more the want of agreement between Renschild and Lowenburgt, were the reasons why the Swedes did not display their usual skill in manceuvring, which had so often given them the victory. They were obliged to yield to superior force, and the enemy obtained a com-

plete victory. Charles saw his generals. Iar contest, Stanislaus came to Bender to his favorite minister, count Piper, and ask the king of Sweden to give his conthe flower of his army, fall into the power sent to the treaty which he saw himself of these Russians so easily vanquished at obliged to conclude with Augustus; but Narva. He himself together with Mazep-Charles 'refused. The Turks now repa, fled with a small guard, and was' moved their prisoner from Bender to Deobliged, notwithstanding the pain of his. motica, near Adrianople. Here he spent wounds, to go several miles on foot. He finally found refuge and an honorable reception at Bender, in the Turkish territory. His enemies were now inspired with new assistance from the Porte, he sent a parthope. Augustus protested against the treaty of Altranstädt; Peter invaded Livoma; Frederic of Dennurk made a descent on Schonen. The regency in Stockholme took measures for the defence of the Swedish territory. General Steinbock assembled a body of militia and peasants, defeated the Danes at Helsingborg, and compelled them to evacuate Schonen. Several divisions were sent to Finland to keep off the Russians, who, nevertheless, advanced, being superior in numbers. Charles, meanwhile, negotiated at Bender with the Porte; succeeded in removing the ministers who were opposed to him, and induced the Turks to declare war The armies met on the against Russia. banks of the river Pruth, July 1, 1711. Peter seemed nearly runed, when the conrage and prudence of his wife (see Catharine) produced a peace, in which the interests of Charles were entirely neglect-This monarch, however, projected at Bender new plans, and, through his agents, solicited of the Porte auxiliaries against his enemies. But the Russian agents were no less active to prepossess the Porte against hun, pretending that Charles designed to make himself, in the person of Stamslaus, the actual master of Poland, in order, from thence, in connexion with the German emperor, to attack the Turks. The seraskier of Bender was ordered to compel the king to depart, and, in case he refused, to bring him, living or dead, to Admanople. Little used to obey the will of another, and apprehensive of being given up to his enemies, Charles resolved to defy the forces of the Porte, with the two or three hundred men of which his retinue consisted, and, sword in hand, to await his fate. When his residence at Varmitza, near Bender, was attacked by the Turks, he defended it against a whole army, and yielded only stop by step. The house took fire, and he was about to abandon it, when, his spurs becoming entangled, he fell, and was taken prisoner. His eye-lashes were singed by powder, and his clothes covered with blood. Some days after this singu-

two months in bed, feigning sickness, and employed in reading and writing. Convinced, at last, that he could expect no ing embassy to Constantinople, and set off in disguise with two officers. Accustorned to every deprivation, Charles pursuedehis journey on horseback, through Hungary and Germany, day and night, with such haste, that only one of his attendants was able to keep up with him. Exhausted and haggard, he arrived before Stralsund about one o'clock on the mght of the 11th Nov. O. S. (22d), 1714. Pretending to be a courier with important despatches from Turkey, he caused himself to be immediately introduced to the commandant, count Dunker, who quest troned him concerning the king, without recognising him till he began to speak, when he sprang joyfully from his bed, and embraged the knees of his master. The report of Charles's arrival spread rapidly throughout the city. The houses were illuminated. A combined army of Danes, Saxons, Russians and Prussians immediately invested Stralsund. Charles performed, during the defence, miracles of bravery. But, being obliged to surrender the fortress, on Dec. 15, 1715, he proceeded to Lund, in Schonen, and took measures to secure the coast. He then attacked Norway. The baron of Gortz. whose bold but intelligent plans were adapted to the situation of the Swedish monarchy, was, at that time, his confidential friend. His advice was that Charles should gain Peter the Great to the interest of Sweden by important concessions, make himself master of Norway, and from thence land in Scotland, in order to dethrone George I, who had declared hunself against Charles. Gortz discovered resources for prosecuting the war, and entered into negotiations, at Aaland, with the plenipotentiaries of the czar. was already gamed, and a part of Norway conquered; the fortunes of Sweden seemed to assume à favorable aspect; Charles was besieging Fredericshall, when, on Nov. 30, 1718, as he was in the trenches, leaning against the parapet, and examining the workmen, he was struck on the head by a cannon ball. He was found dead in the same position, his hand

Gustavus Adolphus and a prayer-book. It is more than probable, that the ball which killed him was fired, not from the fortress, but from the Swedish side. His adjutant, Siguier, has been accused as an accomplice in his murder, A century afterwards, Nov. 30, 1818, Charles XIV caused a monument to be erected on the spot where he fell. At Charles's death, Sweden sunk from the rank of a leading power. In his last years, he had formed great plans for the improvement of its navy, trade and commerce. At Lund, he often conversed with the professors of the university, and attended public disputations on geometry, mechanics and history. In Bender, the reading of useful books was one of his principal employments: he sent for Swedish scholars, and caused them to travel through Greece and Asia. Accounts of some of these travels have been printed; there are others in manuscript at Upsal. Francess, valor and love of justice were the grand features of Charles's character, but were distigured by I an obstmate rashness. After his return, he showed himself more peaccable, gentle, moderate, and disposed to politic measures. Posterny, considering him in relation to his times, will say that he had great virtues and great faults; that he was seduced by prosperity, but not overcome by adversity. His history has been written by his chaplain, Norberg. Adlerfeld has published his multary memoirs. Voltaire's Histoire de Charles XII, though not complete, nor free from errors in dates, names and geographical facts, is written with much clearness and elegance.

CHARLES XIII: king of Sweden; born Oct. 7, 1748; second son of king Adol-phus Frederic and Louisa Ulrica, sister of Frederic the Great of Prussia. Having been appointed, at his birth, high admired of Sweden, his education was directed chiefly to the learning of nayal tactics, for which purpose he accompanied several cruses in the Cattegat. In 1765, he became honorary president of the society of sciences at Upsal. In 1770, he com-menced the tour of Europe. The death menced the tour of Europe. of Adolphus Frederic recalled him to Sweden, where he took an important part in the revolution of 1772. The brother, Gustavus III, appointed him governorgeneral of Stockholm, and duke of Suder-In 1774, he married Hedwig manuland. Elisabeth Charlotte, princess of Holsten-Gottorp. In the war with Russia, in 1988, he received the command of the fleet, defeated the Russians in the gulf

on his sword, in his pocket the portrait of of Finland, and, in the most dangerous season of the year, brought back his fleet in safety to the harbor of Carlscrona, after which he was appointed governor-general of Finland. After the murder of Gustavus III, in 1792, he was placed at the head of the regency, and, happily for Sweden, preserved the country at peace with all other nations, while he united with Denmark for the protection of the navigation in the northern seas. He likewise founded a museum, established a military academy for 200 pupils, and gamed universal esteem. In 1796, he rewigned the government to Gustavus Adolphus IV, who had become of age, and retired as a private man, to his castle of Rosersberg. He never appeared again in public life till a revolution hurled Gustavus Adolphus IV, in 1809, from the throne, and placed Charles at the head of the state, as administrator of the realm, and, some months afterwards, June 20, 1809, as king of Sweden, at a very critical period. The peace with Russia, at Fredericksham, Sept. 17, 1809, gave the country the tranquillity necessary for repairing its heavy losses, and for completing the constitution. He had already adopted prince Christian of Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg as his successor, and, after his death, marshal Bernadette, who was elected by the estates, in August, 1810, to take the place of the prince. On him he bestowed his entire confidence. May 27, ' 1811, he founded the order of Charles XIII, which is conferred solely on freemasons of high degree. June 21, 1816, he acceded to the holy allutace. His prudent conduct in the war between France and Russia, in 1812, procured Sweder an indeminification for Finland by the acquisition of Norway, Nov. 4, 1814. Although some disappointed nobles may have given utterance to murmurs against his government, Charles XIII nevertheless enjoyed the love of his people till his death, Feb. 5, 1818.

CHARLES XIV, John, king of Sweden and Norway (or Scandinavia), married, Aug. 16, 1798, Eugenic Bernardine Desire c (born Nov. 8, 1781), daughter of the merchant Clary, of Marseilles, sister of the wife of Joseph Bonaparte. Feb. 5, 1818, he succeeded Charles XIII, by whom he had been adopted. This prince, whose political station practically refutes the necessity of the principle of legitimacy maintained by the potentates of Europe, was born, Jan. 26, 1764, at Pau, at the foot of the Pyrenees, and was called Jean Baptiste Jules Bernadotte. His father was

a lawyer. His uncommon intellectual cultivation shows that he was educated with great care. In 1780, he voluntarily entered the military profession, and, in 1789, at the age of 26 years, was still a sergeant. When the revolution broke out, he entered ers of his country, and rose quickly through the steps of military promotion. In 1794, he was general of division in the battle of Fleurus; in 1795, he contributed essentially to the passage of the French over the Rhine, at Neuwied; in 1796, he served in Jourdan's army. His services on the Lahn, the blockade of Mentz, the battle of Neuhoff, the passage over the Rednitz, the taking of Altorf, the capture of Neumark, and the advantages obtained over Kray, whom he deprived of his magazines on the Marne, established his reputation, as a general. He afterwards led reinforcements to the army of Italy, and was intrusted, by Bonaparte, with the siege of the fortress of Gradisca. In the contests which ensued before he could make himself master of it, he afforded a model of coolness and intreputity. Shortly before the 18th Fructidor, Bonaparte chose him to carry to the directory the banners taken in the battle of Rivoli, and, m his letter, called him one of the generals who had most essentially contributed to the renown of the Italian army. the treaty of Leoben, the disturbances of the southern provinces continuing in consequence of the 18th Fruendor, the directory appointed general Bernadotte commandant at Marselles: but he refused to turn his Sword against his fellow-entlens. and returned to his division in Italy. After the treaty of Campo-Formio, he was appointed ambassador of the French republic to the court of Vienna. A furnult, caused by planting the tri-colored banner on the palace of the embassy, induced him to leave Vienna. He repaired to He repaired to Rastadt, and from thence to Paris. In the campaign of 1799, Bernadotte, as commander of the army of observation, under Jourdan, was instructed to cross the Rhine and invest Philippsburg. But the approach of the arch-duke Charles, the retreat of Jourdan over the Rhine, the dissolution of the congress of Rastadt, and the progress of the albes in Italy, rendered extraordinary measures necessary. Bernadotte, being placed in the ministry of war, urged the accusation of the generals who had so speedily surrendered the Italian fortresses, encouraged the zeal of the conscripts, exerted himself for the restoration of military discipline, and checked

the abuses that had crept into the army. Three months after, he saw himself re-moved from the office which he had administered in the most difficult crisis, at the moment when he might have enjoyed the order he had produced. He therefore with enthusiasm the ranks of the defend-, retired from the public service, and had already taken up his abode in the country. when the 18th Brumaire effected a change in his situation. Bonaparte called him to the council of state. Here he opposed the establishment of the order of the legion of honor. The first consul, on the other hand, refused to place him at the head of the expedition destined for St. Domingo, and Bernadotte expressed himself very explicitly respecting the entue incompetency of general Leclerc for the duty. An alienation thus took place between him and Bonaparte; and his brother-in-law Joseph could only bring about a kind of political reconciliation between them. He now received the command of the army of the West, and, by his humane measures, suppressed, in its origin, the insurrection excited in the hardly queted Vendee, by some chiefs of the Chomis, (q. v.) After the pleace of Choumis, (q. v.) Luneville, he was appointed ambassador to the U. States; but the revival of the war prevented his poceeding thither. In 1801, the first consul sent him to Hanover in the place of Martier, and his humanity and disinterestedness gained the love of the Hanoverians. In the same year, the change of the consulate into a lareditary empire gave him the staff of a mar-1." shal of the French empire, and, 'con after, the grand decoration of the legion of , honor. On the renewal of hostilities with Austria, Bernadotte led an army through Anspagh, effected a junction with the Bavarians at Wortzburg, and, in this way surrounding the Austrian contributed to the victory at I fin. In the battle of Auscerlinz, Bernadotte's corps constituted the centre, which withstood all the attacks of the Russan army. June 5, 1806, Napoleon created him prince of Ponte-Corvo. In the war against Prussia, he led the first corps d'armee, advanced from Bayreuth, through Hoff, to the Saxon Vogtland, and cut off the corps of count Tauenzien from the Prussian main army. Oct. 14, he advanced from Dornburg, in the rear of the Prussian army, pursued general Blueher to Lubeck, and compelled him to capitulate. was the only French leader who seriously endeavored to alleviate the melancholy fate of this unhappy city on the 5th Nov's 1806. Towards the Swedes, also, taken prisoners on the Trave, 1500 in number.

he manifested so much kindness, that his hame was mentioned with respect in Sweden. He next marched through Poland 'and Prussia Proper, and fought, Jan. 25, 1807, the bloody engagement of Mohrungen, by which the Russians were prevented from surprising the grand army, and driving it over the Vistula. He was prevented from participating in the battle of Friedland by a wound received at Span-gen, June 5. From the close of 1807 to the spring of 1809, he commanded the French army which remained in the north of Germany. War having broken out anew, in 1809, between Austria and France, he led the Saxon allies to the battle of Wagram, where, with the guard and corps of the viceroy of Italy, they formed the second line and the reserves, and, animated by his courage, fought with The Saxona took the greatest distinction. Wagram, and maintained possession of the burning village for two hours; but, as they had lost many of their number, the prince commanded general Dupas, whose division belonged to the muth corps, to support them. But Dupas refused, because he was ordered, from a higher quarter, to remain in his position. Astonished at this, the prince immediately made preparations to save the remainder of the Saxon troops, and then hastened to headquarters, to complain to the emperor of this violation of military rule. "If his death," he said, " were desired, there were less odious means than one by which so many brave men must perish with him." The emperor tried to appease the prince by saying that such errors were unavoidable in so extensive movements. But Bernadotte took his dismission, and went to Pans. Information being received of the landing of the English on Walcheren, the cous 2 of ministers intrusted to him the charge of repelling the myasion. He immediately called out the na? tional guards, deceived, the enemy by marches and countermarches, and compelled them to evacuate the island. From that time the prince lived in the bosom of his family, sometimes in the country, sometimes at Paris; and here the deputies of Sweden brought him, in September, 1810, information of his appointment as successor to the throne, and crown-prince of this kingdom. King Charles XIII had proposed him for his successor, on the 18th of August, to the estates, and the committee of the estates, selected for the purpose, chose him, August 21, almost unanimous-19, on condition that he should embrace the evangelical Lutheran religion. Berna-

dotte's acceptance of his election Charles XIII announced to the diet at Œrebro, Sept. 26, 1810, having previously, at a chapter of the order holden on the 24th, created the new crown-prince knight of the order of seraphim: he was likewise appointed generaliseimo of the realm. Napoleon had no influence on this choice; for, when he learned, in July, 1810, that the Swedish diet was assembling at Œrebro, to choose a successor to the throne, he expressed a wish that the king of Den- . mark might be elected; and the remi-official Journal de l'Empire contains an article to this effect, which Désaugiers, the French chargé d'affaires in Stockholm, communicated by a note to the Swedish ministry. Meanwhile three Swedish deputies had already arrived in Paris to ascertain the sentiments of the prince in case of his election. The prince referred them to the emperor, who assured the deputies that he should not oppose the free choice of the diet, though it should fall on the prince of Ponte-Corvo. At the same time, he recalled his charge d'affaires from Stockholm. After the prince was elected, Napoleon made him several promises in favor of Sweden, but their mutual personal relations were not, on that account, more friendly than they had been before. Oct. 18, at moon, Poute-Corvo reached the royal Danish castle of Fredericsborg, where he remained in the midst of the royal family till the next day, when he departed for Elsinore. Here doctor Lindblom, archbishop of Upsal, in the presence of several witnesses, Oct. 19, " 1810, in the house of the Swedish consul. received his profession of belief in the creed of the evangehead Lutheran church Annd the thunder of cannon, a Swedish galley conveyed him to Helsingborg, where he landed Oct 20, and had his first meeting with king Charles XIII. On the 31st, he was presented to the diet. By an act of Nov. 5, 1810, the king adopted him; he assumed the name of Charles John, and took the oath as crown-prince and heir of " the throne; after which ceremony, he received the homage of the estates. To his son Oscar was granted the title of duke of Sudermanuland. His wife came to Stockholm, Jan. 7, 1811, but returned to Paris, where she hved, till some years since, under the title of countess of Gothland. king being attacked with sickness in the following year, he committed to the crownprince, March 17, 1811, though with some restrictions, the government of the Swedish monarchy, which he conducted till Jan. 7, 1812, with wisdom and energy.

He did much to promote the agriculture. France, but only to guard the interests of (an agricultural society was erected under his superintendence), commerce and milhary power of Sweden. Meanwhile, the crown-prince so far yielded to the demands of the emperor Napoleon, that Sweden declared war against Great Britalu Nov. 17, 1810. But, after Napoleon flad demanded, in vain, 2000 Swedish sailors for his fleet at Brest, and Sweden eclused to enforce the continental system an all its rigor, he occupied Swedish Pomcrama, without giving any explanation on the subject; and the French ambassador, Alquier, at Stockholm, used language which implied that the crown-prince was to have in view solely the interest of When Charles XIII resumed the government, the crown-prince made a remarkable report respecting his administration and the situation of the kingdom. In conformity with his views, the decree of July 29, 1812, was issued, by which the Swedish ports were opened to all nations. This resolution, a consequence of the increasing differences between Sweden and France, was justified by the crown-prince tween France and Russia, in 1812, Sweden refused the alliance of France, and, in consequence of the provocations which she had received from that country, concluded a secret league with Russia, at Sig-Petersburg, March 24, O. S. (Apr.) 51 1512, by the terms of which she prones d to send an acrey of 25-30,000 mee to Germany, but Russa previously pledged itself to unite Norway with Steeler, either by nooralitious or by force of are see Scholl's Traites de Paix, v. 101, & c.) This treaty, however, was set aside at the firsting of Alexander and the crown-prince at Abo, Aug. 27, 1812, in order that Russia might employ, for its own defence, its. army in Umland, which had been designed to act against Norway, but was now not dod on the Dwina. That treaty is the foundation of the political system subsequently observed by Sweden; and proposed at that time by the crown-prince. Peace between Sweden and Great Britain was also effected at Œrebro, July 12, Napoleon's head-quarters were 141.7 then between Smolensk and Moscow. Sweden's policy required the greatest possible precaution: its formal declaration of war against France was not therefore made till Charles John had reached the head-quarters of Alexander and Frederic William, at Trachenberg, in Silesia, July 9—12, 1813. The crown-prince evidently showed that he did not wish to attack VOL. III.

Sweden, while he promised to cooperate against Napoleon's plane of conquest: several times, therefore, he urged the emperor to make peace. For the same purpose, he wrote to Ney, after the hattle of Denne-witz, Sept. 6, 1813. Certain it is, that he endeavored to prevent the passage of the Rhine by the allies, for the purpose of penetrating into the interior of France. May 18, 1813, the crown-prince arrived at Straisund, to place himself at the head, of the Swedish army in Germany. His letter to the French emperor, March 20, 1813, had been without effect. Sweden had now become more firmly-allied with England and Russia. After the conferonce at Trachenberg, Charles John proceeded to Berlin. He visited, during the truce, the quarters of the troops committed to him, repaired again to Straisund, where he received general Moreau, and, Aug. 11, reached the corps beneging Stottin. He had the command of the "unded army of North Gormany," consisting of the Russian corps of Winzingerode, Woronzow, Czerintschew, of the Lingbsh under Walmoin a letter to Napoleon. In the war besiden, the Prussian under Bálow, and the Swedish moder the field-mershal Steding at By the victory at Grossbeeren, Aug. 23, over the Prench marshal Oudmot, no saved B time. By the still great rayetory at Dynnewiz, the issue of which was deciden by the Penssian general Below, count of Decaeway, over unrelad Ney, 5-pt. 6, the capital of Pressri was a second time as e. Oct. 4, the crown-trice crossed to Ellie at Resslan. His in a ligor the 17th, to Tauche, contributed much a rate add by of the glorious 18th of October, at Lorp w, on which day Churk's John gegmed new reputation. On the tollown g day, be formedl a junction with his ables at Leip ic. When they pursued the enemy in a direct line to his frontiers, Thanes Jelas marched along the Elbe to Mecklenburg agonst marshal Dayoust and the Dares. Lubeck was soon coliquered, and the Danish army separated from the French, which threw itself into Hamburg. A corps was left to prosecute the siege of the city, while the crown-prince, with the main army, turned towards Holstein. the end of three months, his outposts extended to Rissen and Predericia, and Frederic VI, king of Denmark, in the treaty of peace which the crown-prince concluded with him, Jan. 14, 1814, at Kick ceded Norway to Sweden. Hereupon Charles John, with the greater part or his army, proceeded through Harover to the frontiers of France. This march, how-.

ever, was executed so slowly, that, before he arrived at the theatre of war, Alexander and the king of Prussia had already entered Paris. The crown-prince of Sweden now came to Paris, and had an interview with the king of France in Compagne, but soon left France, to undertake the conquest of Norway, which had elected its former governor hereditary king. After a campaign of 14 days, he compided the prince Christian Frederic to make a treaty at Moss, Aug. 14, 1814, by which Norway recognised the conqueror as crown-prince of Norway, Nov. 4, 1814. (See Christian Frederic, and Norway.)

Since his accession to the throne, Charles XIV has done every thing possible in his situation to ment the confidence of the nation, which called him to the throne by · a free choice. When, on occasion of a conspiracy against him, the citizens of Stockholm, in March, 1817, solemnly assured him of their fidelity, he thanked them with the following remarkable words: - I came among you with no other credentials and pledge than my sword and my actions. Could I have brought with me a series of ancestors, extending back to the times of Charles Martel, I should have desired it only on your account. For my part, I am proud of the services which I have rendered, and of the fame which has occasioned my elevation. These claims have been augmented by the adoption of the king, and the unanimous choice of a free people. On this I found my rights; and, as long as honor and justice are not banished from the earth, these rights will be more legitimate and sacred than if I were descended from Odin History teaches that no prince has acquired a throne, but by the choice of a nation, or by conquest. I have not opened a way by arms to this Swedish throne. I have been called by the free choice of the nation, and on this right I rely," &c. In the same spirit has be reigned, and nothing has shaken the confidence of the nation in him. He has inamifested the greatest care for the promotion of justice and the prosperity of his subjects, and has founded several useful institutions from his own funds. He combines a prudent firmness in the removal of abuses, and a wise regard for the general relations of European policy. Commerce he has endeavored to encourage, by treaties with the American republics and the Barbary states. The management of the public debt is unproved, and the public credit established at home. The attention which he has paid to the education of his son, the heir-appar-

ent, prince Oscar (Joseph Francis), born July 4, 1799, is particularly worthy of notice. This was seen at the confirmation of the printee, which took place Affril 15, 1815, according to the usage of the Lutheran church. July 4, 1817, the prince was declared of age. He has subsequently had a seat in the council of state, and, June 20, 1818, the Swedish diet and the Norwegian storthing empowered him to exercise plenary regal powers, in case of the absence or sickness of the king. June 10, 1823, prince Oscar married Josephine, daughter of the late duke Eugene, of Leuchtenberg, viceroy of Italy, step-son of Napoleon, who bore him a son in 1826, who received the title of duke of Schonen. Thus the new dynasty seems to be firmly established. Its principal support is the love of the people, which Charles XIV has won by his conduct, equally prudent and noble. His motto, "The people's love is my reward" (Folkets karlek min beloning), expresses the character of his government. (See the Mem. pour servir à l'Histoire de Charles XIV, par Coupé de St. Donat et B. de Roquefort; Paris, 1820, 2 vols.) The principal dissatisfaction has arsen from the way in which he has sought to regulate the foreign debts of Sweden (for example, the loans of Mr. Frege), and it seems that, in this case, he has acted on every untenable grounds; for the credit of the crown of Sweden has been almost annihilated in foreign countries, and loud complaints have been made respecting the violation of acknowledged obligations. He has done much for institutions of nestruction and improvement; in particular, he has piaced the army and fleet on a respectable footing, has established a large fortified camp for the protection of the country, &c. The memory of Charles XIII be his perpetuated by the erection of a statue, As the only sovereign who has retained a throne acquired during the late wars in Europe, he has a difficult port to play among the legitimates of that contment. It is said that the king of Prussia was negotiating, before the French were driven from his territory, to give one of his daughters to prince Oscar, but that, when his situation improved, he broke off the negotiations.

Charles Emanuel. I, duke of Savoy, surnamed the Great; born at the castle of Rivoh, in 1562. He proved his courage in the battles of Montbrun, Vigo, Asti, Chatillon, Ostage, at the siego of Berue, and on the walls of Suza. He formed, 1590, the plan of uniting Provence to his dominions. Philip II of Spain, his father-

in-law, obliged the parliament of Aix to he occupied the palace Barberini, in this acknowledge him as the protector of this province, in order, by this example, to induce France to acknowledge the king of Spain as protector of the whole realm. The duke of Savoy, not less ambitious, likewise aimed at this crown; and, after the death of Matthias, desired also to be chosen emperor of Germany. He likewise intended to conquer the kingdom of Cyprus, and to take possession of Macedonia, the inhabitants of which, oppressed by the Turks, offered him the sovereignty over their country. The chizens of 'Geneva were obliged to defend their city, 'm." 1602, against this ambitious prince, who fell upon them by night, in time of Beace (See Geneva.) Henry IV, who had reason to complain of the duke, and whose general, the duke of Lesdiguiere, had beaten Charles Emanuel Several tunes, entered, at last, into a treaty of peace with him, not disadvantageous to the duke of Savoy; but he could not remain quiet, and began again a war with France, Spain and Germany. He died of chagrin, at Savillon, 1630. He is one of those princes who render the surname of Great suspicious. His beart was as hard as his native rocks. He built palaces and churches, loved and patronsed the sciences, but thought little of making their sources of happiness

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CHARLES IV, king of Spain, born at Naples, 12th Nov., 1740, came to Madrid in 1759, when his father, Charles III, after the death of his brother, Ferdinand VI. ascended fire Spanish turone, and surceeded him Dec. 13, 1788. He was married to the princess of Parina, Louisa Maria. Too imbeeile to govern, he was always ruled by his wife and his man sers. among whom the prince of peace, Godoy (q. v.), duke of Alcudia, from the year 1792, had unbounded influence over him. The hatred which this favorite drew on himself from the prince of Asturias, and other grandees, brought on a revolution in 1808, which enabled Napoleon to dethrone the Bourbons, (See Spain.) Charles abdi-cated at Aranjuez, March 19, revoked this abdication, and finally ceded, at Bayonne, his right to the throne to Napoleon, who settled on him for his the palace of Compiegne and a pension of 30 indhors of rials, of which 2 millions were destined for the queen's jointure. Charles after this lived at Complegue with the queen and the prince of peace, but subsequently exchanged this residence for Rome, where the climate was more congenial to him. From 1815,

city. Hunting he always made his principal employment. He died at Naples, Jan. 19, 1819, of a relapse of the gout, while on a visit to his brother, the king of the Two Sicilies. His wife died a short time previous, in Dec., 1818. Charles was an impiense eater.

CHARLES LOUIS; archduke of Austria; son of the emperor Leopold II, and brother of the present emperor Francis; field-mar-hal-general; born Sept. 5, 1771. He commenced his military career in Brabant, in the year 1793, commanded the yanguard of the prince of Cobourg, and distinguished himself by his military talent and bravery. Shortly after, he was made governor of the Netherlands, and grand-cross of the order of Maria Theresa. In 1796, he was made field-marshal of the German empire, and took the chief command of the Austrian army on the Rhine. He fought several successful battles against the I'rench general Moreau, near Rastadt, routed general Jourdan, in Franconia, near Amberg, Wurtzburg, &c., threw the French army into confusion, forced Jourdan and Moreau to retreat over the Rhine, and crowned this victorious campaign by getting possession of Kehl, after a hard strugale, in the middle of the winter of 1707. Doing these successes in Germa-CHARLES I, king of Spain. (See Charles in a fortune favored general Bonaparte in Italy. In the month of February of the same year, the archduke Charles repaired thather, and, in the month of April, articles of peace were signed at Leoben. After the unsuccessful congress at Rustadt, the archduke again took the command of the army in the year 1799, defeated general Jourdan et Suabia, as he had formerly done in Francoma, and distinguished himself particularly at the battle of Stockach. Soon after this, he gave press of his great military talent against general Massena, in a most difficult situation, in Switzerland. The impaired stage of his health forced him to quit the field in 1800, when he was elected governor-general of Bohemia; but he had hardly left the army, which had placed its whole confidence in him, ere the greatest consternation became evident. After the imfortunate battle of Hohenhaden, the French entered Austria. At this crisis, the archduke was again placed at the head of the troops, into whom he instilled fresh courage. At last, he acceded to the preliminaries of peace, which were con-firmed by the peace of Luneville. After this, he was appointed minister of war, in which capacity he displayed his talents in a new sphere. In 1802, he refused the

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monument, proposed by the king of Sweden, at the diet of Ratisbon, to be erected . to him as the liberator of Germany. In the campaign of 1805, Charles commanded an Austrian army, in Italy, against Mussena. Whilst affairs in Germany were taking a most unfortunate turn, and Napoleon had entered the very heart of the Austrian provinces, the archduke gained a victory over marshal Massena, at Caldiero, and led his army back to protect the yet unconquered provinces. After the peace of Presburg was concluded, he was elected tirst chief of the council of war, and generalissmo of the whole Austran arute. In the war of 1809, in the month of April, he advanced into Bayaria, with the chief part of the Austrian forces. Here'he was opposed by the whole French army, commanded by Napoleon hunself, and a hardfought and bloody battle, which lasted five days, ensued; after which, in spite or eyery exercion, the Austrans were compelled to yield to a superior torce. On the 21st and 22d of May of the same year, the meliduke gained a victory at Aspern, opposite to Vienna, and compelled the Press k to retreat across the Danube with great loss. The battle of Wagners, one of the greatest in history, had an unfortunate result, but no censure can be cast, either on the Austrian army, which distinguished uself by its bravery, or on the archduke; who was wounded on this or casion, for being compelled to give way to a much superior force after a battle of two days. during which they saveral trees had the Their retont was effected advantage. with the greatest order, and aimlest constant fighting, till they reached Zingym. where an arms we put on end to the battle. Soon after tins, the arcfiduke resigned the womand, and I is not since appeared at the head of the error. He his enriched indicay literature wide two valuable work — Grug løgtze der Strategie erlautert durc't die Barstellung des Veldzugs vor 1795, o. Deutschland Pymciples of Strategy, diastrated by the Campaign of 1796, in G. rmany , Vient. i, 1843, 5 vols, with a respot the theater of wir and 11 plans, 2d ed.; and, as a continuation of the same, Die Geschichte des Feldy znes von 1790 in Deutschland and in der Schweit (Restory of the Campagn of 1799, in Germany and Switzerlands, Vien-La. 1819, 2 vols., with an arbis in John Both works have been translated into After the return of Napoleon French. he was made governor of Men'r, an afrerwards governor and captum-general of Bohemas. In 1815, he married the prin-

cess Henrietta of Nassau-Weilburg, by whom he has had three sons and one daughter. The archduke lives, generally, quite retired in the country.

CHARLES AUGUSTUS of Weimar. (Sec

Weimar.)

Charles River; a river in Massachusetts, which flows into Boston harbor, dividing Boston from Charlestown. The source of the principal branch is a pond bordering on Hopkinton. It is navigable for lighters and large boats to Watertown, 7 miles.

CHARLESTON: a city and scaport of South Carolina, in a district of the same nam; 120 miles S. S. E. Columbia, 113 N. E. Savannah, 590 S. S. W. Baltimore; lon. 79° 54′ W.; lat. 32° 47′ N.: population in 1790, 163359; in 1800, 18,712; in 1810, 24,711. 11,068 whites, and 13,043 blacks; m 1820, 24,780; 5323 free white males, 3330 free white females: 12,552 slaves, 1475 fire people of color. It is snuated on a tongue of land formed by the confluence of the rivers Cooper and Ashley, which unite just below the city, and form a spacious and convenient haibor, communicating with the ocean below Sufhvan's island, 7 noles from Charleston At the mouth of the lamoor, there extens, from show to shore, a sand-bank, dengerous to vessels, but having two channels, the deepest of which has 16 feet of water at low tide. The harbor is defended by ion Paikney and fort Johnson, which are on islands the former 2 and the latter 4 males below the city, and by fort Moultre or Sainvan's island. Charleston contains a city-half an exchange, a custom-house, .. guard house, a theatre, an orphum-housan horpital, an alms-house, 2 arsenais, 2 read ets, a college, and 19 houses of pubir worshin, I for Episcopahans, 3 for Prospeterems, 3 for Methodists, 2 for Congregationalists, I for Lutherans, 2 for Roo an Catholics, 1 for French Protestants, the Baptists, 1 for Friends, and a Jews' synagogue. The Charleston library con type about 13,000 volumes. The orphan c-vium is a noble and well endowed in stration, which supports and educates nearly 200 orphan children. There are several other charatable societies richly colourd, particularly the South Carof its society, the St. Andrew's society. and the Fellowship society, instituted for the relief of widows and orphans The city is regularly laid out in parallel streets, which are intersected by others marly at right angles. The tongue of iand, on which it is built, was originally and inted with creeks and narrow marshes

which have been filled up; and it is drier , and more elevated than most parts of the low country of South Carolina, Many of the houses are elegant, and furnished with mazzas. It is much the largest town in the state, and was formerly the seat of government. . It has an extensive com-The shipping owned here, in 1816, amounted to 36,473 tons; in 1820, to 28,403 tons. That dreadful distemper, the yellow fever, has made frequent rayages in Charleston; but its effects have been chiefly confined to persons from more northern situations; and the climate of the city is accounted healthy to the native inhabitants, more so than that of most other Atlantic towns in the Southerif States. Its superior salubrity attracts the planters from the surrounding country, and it is the favorite resort of the wealthy from the West Indies. It affords much agreeable society, and is reckoned one of the gave-t towns in the U. States. (See Carolina, South.)

CHARLESTOWN; a post-town in Middlesex county, Massachusetts, one mile north of the centre of Boston; population, in 1820, 6591. The principal part of the town is finely simuted on a pennisula, formed by Charles and Mystic rivers, which here flow into Boston harbor. Charlestown is connected with Boston by two bridges across Charles river; with Chelsea and Malden by two others across Mystic river, and with Cambridge by a bridge agross a bay of Charles river. It is a pleasant and flourishing town, the largest in the county of Middlesex, and advantageously situated for trade and manufac-tures. The principal public buildings are the state prison, the Massachusetts hospital for the insane, a market-house, ahnshouse, and five houses of public wor-hip. One of the principal navy-yards in the U. States occupies about 60 acres of land, in the south-east part of this town. It is carclosed, on the land side, by a wall of solid masonry, and contains, besides other buildings, several arsenals, magazines of public stores, and three immense edifices. each sufficiently capacious to receive a ship of 100 guns, with all the apparatus for its construction. Bunker hill, on Which was fought one of the most celebrated battles of the American revolution, is in this town. (For an account of the events which brought on the battle, see Massachusetts, and United States.) The British army in Boston had been increased to about 10,000 men, by the arrival of reinforcements, towards the end of May, 1775, and was under the command of general

Gage, governor of Massachusetts bay, generals Howe, Clinton, Burgoyne, &c. The American army of citizen-soldiers amountetl to about 15,000 men, enlisted for a few months, without organization or discipline. They were armed with fowling-pieces, but few of them provided with bayonets. The whole was under the command of general Ward, of Massachusetts, whose headquarters were at Cambridge. The right wing, under brigadier-general Thomas, occupied the heights of Roxbury; the left, under colonel Stark, was stationed at Medford. The city of Boston is built on a small peninsula, having the town of Charlestown, also built on a peninsula, and separated from it by a narrow arm of the sea, about 1500 feet wide, on the north. The heights of Charlestown, Breed's hill (62 feet high) and Bunker hill (110 feet high, about 130 rods N. W. of the for-mer), command the city. The Americans having received information of the intention of the British to occupy these heights, and advance into the country, orders were issued to colonel Prescott (June 16) to take possession of Bunker hill in the evening, and erect the fortifications requisite to defend it. General Putnam (q. v.) had the superintendence of the expedition. Finding, on their arrival, that, though Bunker hill was the most commanding posicion, it was too far from the enemy to annoy his shipping and army, the provincials determmed to fortify Breed's hill, and began their labor soon after midnight. Every thing had been conducted with so much silence, that the British were not aware of their presence till day-break, when the ships of war and floating batteries, which lay in the harbor of Charlestown, together with a battery on Copp's hill, opened a heavy fire on the redoubt which had been completed during the night. The Americans meanwhile, continued their labor. until they had thrown up a small breastwork, extending worth, from the east side of the redoubt, to the bottom of the hill. About one o'clock, the British, under general Howe; landed at Morton's point, in Charlestown, without opposition. Here they waited for remforcements, which arrived soon after. The whole number amounted to about 5000 men, with 6 fieldpieces and howitzers. The original detachment of provinculs amounted to 1000 men, with 2 field-pieces. They had been reinforced by about the same number, among whom were the New Hampshire troops, under colonel Stark. General Pomeroy, and general Warren, president of the provincial congress, joined the ranks

14.6 his volunteers. The troops on the open pround formed a cover from the musketry of the enemy, by pulling up the rail fence. placing them at small distances apart in parallel lines, and filling up the intervening space with new-mown grass. The British columns now moved forward, under general Howe, to the attack of the rail fence, and, under general Pigot, to attack the breastwork and redoubt. The Americans impatiently withheld their fire until, according to the words of Putnam, "they saw the winte of their enemies eyes. The British were repulsed with great loss. Had they charged, they would probably leave been more successful, as the American troops were almost entirely destitute of bayonets. A second attack, during which the village of Charlestown was burned to the ground, was attended with the same. visult. But the Americans had nearly expended their annuunition, and their commonication with the main army was interrupted by the fire of the floating butteres. which entiladed Charlestown neck. The English now rallied for a third attack, determined to coheentrate their forces on the redoubt and breastwork, and to charge, at the same time, their artillery turned the b fi of the breastwork, enfilleded the line, and sent their balts directly and the redoubt. • The Americans, after resisting with stones and the butts of their guns, rete at d under a heavy fire. They were, however, not pursued very warmly, and drew off with an inconsiderable loss. They had 115 killed. among whom was general Warren (q. v.), 265 a conduct and 30 made presences. The 305 wounded, and 30 made prisoners British loss was 1054 killed and wounded. June 17th, 1825, the 50th anniversary of this battle was commemorated by a public celebration, and the corner-stone of the Bunker hill manument was laid. Charlevolv, Peter Francis Xavier do a French Jesud, was born at St. Quemon.

Charlevola, Peter Francis Navier des a French Jesud, was born at St. Quemon, in 16\*2, and taught languages and philosophy with some reputation. He was, for some years, a messonary in America, and, on his return, had a chief share in the Journal de Trécouz for 22 years. He died in 1761, greatly esteemed for his high moral character and extensive learning. Of his works, the Histoire Gen rate de la Nouvelle France is the most valuable. The describes his own experience, and the manners and customs of the native Americans, for which he is often quoted, as a witter of good authority. His style is simple and unaffected, but not perfectly correct

\* CHARLOTTE AUGUSTA, daughter of queen Caroline (q. v.) and George IV, and the wife of prince Leopold of Coburg, was

born at Carlton house, Jan. 7, 1796, and passed the first years of her life under the eyes of her mother, who watched over her with the fondest affection. She was afterwards placed under the care of lady Clifford, and the bishop of Exeter superintended her studies. These were calculated to prepare her to become, one day, the queen of a great nation, and she was obliged to attend to them from morning to evening. She is said to have been well acquainted with the principal ancient writers, and with the history and statistics of the European states, especially with the constitution and laws of her native country. She spoke, with east, French German, Italian and Spanish, sung well. played on the harp, puno and guita, and sketched landscapes from nature with much taste. Her style of writing was pleasing, and she was fond of poetry. In the unfortanate dissensions between her father and mother, she mehned to the side of the latter. The prince of Orange wafixed upon as her nature husband, and the nation desired their union, because the prince had been educated in England, and was acquainted with the customs and interests of the people. After having completed his studies at the university of Oxtord, he had served in the British army in Span, and distinguished hunself. Supon, however, was prevented by the disinclination of the princess. In the mean time, she was introduced at court, in 1815, on her 19th birth-day. The princess, who, mony simulion, would have been an origiment to her sex, displayed an ardent but generous disposition, and independence and lonness of sentiment. She often said that queen Elizabeth must be the model of an Engish queen; and some persons even thought there was a resemblance between them. In 1814, prince Leopold of Coburg visited England, in the same of the allied sovereigns, who went to London after the peace of Paris. His cultivated mind and annable namers having made an unpression on the heart of the princess, & he was permitted to sue for her hand Their marriage, the result of personal inchnation, was solemnized May 2, 1816. The prince (whom Napoleon declared, at St. Helena, one of the finest men he had ever seen) loved her with tenderness. They were always together, rode out in company, visited the cottages of the country people, and exhibited a pleasing picture of conjugal love. They seldom left Clarenton, and only went to London when their presence at court was necessary. Their domestic life resembled that of a

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private family: after dinner, they painted together, and the evenings were devoted to wusic or reading. Meanwhile, the nation anxiously expected the moment when the princess, who was highly beloved, should become a mother. The expectations which had been entertained, howover, were disappointed by a premature delivers. England soon concerved new hopes; but, Nov. 5, 1817, after three days of suffering, the princess was delivered of a dead child. A few hours after her delivery, she was seized with convulsions, and breathed her last, The physician who had attended her shot lumself.

CHARLOTTI SECRE; a residence of the king of Prussia, built by Sophia Charlotte, the first queen of Prussu, on the banks of the Spree, about three miles from Berlin, with a beautiful garden. The town, which has lately grown up, commus 430 houses, or which a large number are public houses, and 4700 mbahitants. A beautiful wilk kads through the park of Berlin to Charbecenturg, which is a favorite resort of the cutzens of Berlin. In the garden adjoining the castle is the tomb of the lit squeen \* Lorusa, by me stamury Rauch. Charlot-\* terroing contains one of the hist academics of G. r may, it, c of Messieurs Caner, who termenty raught at Berlin

CHARLOTTE SVIII , a post-tosp, and path of Albemarle county, Vargana, 49 males E. S. E. Staunton, 86 W N. W. Highmond: Jar. 38 2 N., Jon. 78 52 W. has very pleasantly smarted, one mile from the Rivanua, and is laid out in squares of three or tom neres. The university of Virginia was established here, by the legislature, in 1817. The buildings comprise 10 paythons, for the accommodation of professors; 109 dormnores and 6 hotels, for the lodging and dieting of the students. The site is a little distance out of the village, and occupies 200 acres. The metitution is to receive annually, from the Virginia literary fund, the sum of \$15,000.

Charon, in inythology; the son of Erthe dead, in his crazy boat, over the dark floods of Acheron, over Cocytus, resounding with the deleful lamentations of the dead, and, finally, over the Styx, dreaded even by the immortals. The shades were each obliged to pay him an obolus, which was put, at the time of burial, into the mouth of the deceased. Those who could not pay the fare, or had been so unfortunate as to find no grave in the upper world, were compelled to wander on the desolate banks of the Acheron, till Charon was pleased to carry them over to their final resting-

place. He was represented as an old man? with a gloomy aspect, matted beard, and a tattered garments. (Respecting the Egyp-tian origin of this fable, see Cemetery, and

Egyptian Mythology.

CHAROST (Armand Joseph de Béthune), duke of, born at Versailles, in 1728, a worthy descendant of his great ancestor Sully, distinguished himself on many occasions, in the military service of his country. He was the friend and father of his soldiers, and rewarded the brave from his own resources. In 1758, he sent all this plate to the mint, to supply the necessities of the state. The peace concluded in 1763 restored him to a more quiet sphere of usefulness; yet he did not discontinue his favor- towards the soldiers whom he had . commanded. He was particularly active in the promotion of agriculture and public ustraction. Long before the revolution, he abolished the feudal services on his estates, and wrote against feudal institutions. He established charitable institutions in sundry parishes, provided for the support and instruction of orphans, employed physicians and undwives, founded and liberally endowed an hospital. In a year of dearth, he imported grain into Calais at his own expense. In the provincial assemblies, he spoke against the correcs. In the assembly of the notables, he declared himself for an equal distribution of the public burdens. The revolution broke out. Before the decree relative to a patriotic contribution appeared, he made a voluntary present of 100,000 tranes to the state. During the reign of terror, he retired to Meillang, where he was arrested, and did not obtain his liberty until after the 9th Thermidor. In the testimonies given in his behalf by the revolutionary committees, he was called the father and benefactor of suffering humanifer. He returned to Meillant, where he established an agricultural society. No sacrifice was too great for him, and his vast fortune was scarcely sufficient for his enterprises. He died Oct chas and Nov. It was his office to ferry #27, 1800, of the small-pox, lamented by the people, whose benefactor he had been.

CHARPINTIER, I. F. G.: a man who did much to improve the art of mining. He was born in 1738, and died in 1805. was one of the professors in the mining academy at Freyburg, in Saxony.

CHART. (See Map.)

C'HARTA MAGNA. (Sec Magna Charta.) CHARTE CONSTITUTIONNELLE (constitutional charter) is the fundamental law of the French realm, given by king Louis XVIII (q. v.) June 4, 1814, when he returned from England. It is one of those

instruments, which are called, in French, octrayés; that is, such as are granted by the sovereign power of the king, and are not a compact between the people and the ruler, nor a constitution framed by the people themselves. The charter uses the words Nous avons accordé et accordons, fait concession et octroi à nos sujets, &c. The word charte was chosen as calling to mind the old charters granted in France, for instance, la charte aux Normands.

The French charter consists of 76 articles, and some prelumnary remarks, in which the king acknowledges the necessity of a constitutional charter, as demanded by the spirit of the age and the state of France, and cedant au rau des sujets, adds this instrument to the grants of the ancient kings of France, and declares that he gives it voluntarily, and by the free exercise of his royal authority, for himself and his successors. Articles I to 12 inclusive contain the public right of the French (droit public des Français). This portion of the Charte is something of the nature of a bill of rights. Those from 13 to 23 inclusive contain the formes du gouvernement du roi, which determine the prerogatives of the Ling, and his relation to the other branches of government. Those from 34 to 34 inclusive relate to the constitution of the chamber of peers: 35-53 relate to the chamber of deputies of the departments: 54-56, to the ministry; 57-68, to the judiciary, 69-74, contain particular rights guarantied by the state; 75 and 76 contain transitory articles (a li les transitoires). The first article declares all Frenchmen equal in the eye of the law (les Français sont egact devant la loi, quels que soient d'ailleurs le ma titres et All citizens are taxed in leurs rangs). proportion to their property (art. 2), and are admissible to all civil and military offices (art. 3). "Till forms of religion are tolerated and protected, but the Catholic is declared the religion of the state. 8 recognises the liberty of the press, but reserves the right of making laws against the abuse of this privilege. Twelve such additional laws are referred to in an edition of the Charte printed 1828. (See Villele.) Art. 9 declares all property inviolable, not excepting the national estates, so called, that is, such as belonged to the king, clergy and nability before the revolution, and were sold during its continuance. Art. 11 declares a general annesty, as regards votes and opinions previous to the restoration. (See Amnesty.) A law of amnesty was also passed Jan. 11, 1816. The conscription is abolished (art. 12). The person of the king is declared invio-

lable and sacred. His ministers are responsible. To the king alone belongs the executive power (art. 18). The king is supreme chief of the state and commander of the sea and land forces; he declares war, makes all appointments, and establishes regulations and ordinances necessary for the execution of the laws and the safety of the state (art. 14). The legislative power rests jointly in the king, the chamber of . peers, and the chamber of deputies (art. 15). The king proposes the laws (art. 16).\* The chambers may petition him to propose a law (art. 19). If the petition is rejected, it cannot be taken up during the same session (art. 21). The civil list is fixed during the first session of the chainbers, after the accession of a king, for the whole duration of his reign (art. 23). The peers of France are nominated by the king. Their dignity is either granted for life, or made hereditary, according to his Their number is unlimited (art. 27). The peers cannot meet without the chamber of deputies is also in session (art. 26). Peers enter the chamber at the age of 25 years, but have not the right to vote or speak until the age of 30 (art. 28). The chancellor of France presides over the peers; in his absence, a peer normnated by the king (art. 29). Members of t the king's family, and princes of the blood, are peers by birth, but have no right to vote before the age of 25 years, and the king must permit them to take their seats for each session by a particular message; otherwise every thing done by the chainber in their presence is void (agr. 30, 31). The debates of the peers are secret (art. The chamber of peers takes cognizunce of high treason and attempts against the satity of the state (art. 33). Peers can be arrested and tried only by the chamber to which they belong (art. 34). The chamber of deputies is composed of the deputies elected by the electoral colleges in the departments (art. 35). By the terms of the charter, the deputies were to be elected for five years, but the period has since been extended to seven years, (See Septennial Elections.) To become acquainted with the rules relating to elections, it is necessary to consult not merely the Charle, but also the laws of Feb. 5, 1817, March 25, 1816, June 19, 1820. In 1824, the ministry obtained the repeal of

<sup>&</sup>quot;Therefore the French laws begin thus —Louis or Charles, &c., par la grâce de Dieu, Roi de France et à venu, Natur Nous avons proposé, les Chambres ont adopté, Nous Avons Ordonne et Ordonnoise, qui suit.

art, 37, which requires a fifth part of the chamber to be annually elected-a change which much diminishes the independence This is a subject of great be nation. The liberal part of the body. complaint in the nation. of the nation are looking with great anxicty for a return to the provisions of the clutter, and the security of one of the fundamental rights of the citizens. (See Election.) The president of the chamber of deputies is appointed by the king from among five deputies, presented by the chamber (art. 43). The sessions of the chamber of deputies are public, but, on , the request of five members, it must forms uself into a secret committee (art. 44). The chamber divides itself into bureaux, snew preserve theirs. which discuss the propositions made by the king. No amendment (q. v.) to a law can be made, if it has not been proposed or sanctioned by the king, and discussed by the bureaux, i. c., committees (art. 45, to. The deputies receive, first, all the propositions of the king respecting taxes, and not till after discussion in this body are these fulls sent to the peers (art. 47). No tax can be imposed without the consent of both chambers and the king's smetton (art. 48). Land taxes can be imposed only for one year. Indirect taxes may be laid for several years (art. 19). The king convokes both the chambers each year. He can dissolve that of the deputies, but must, in this case, convoke another within three months part, 50;. No boddy constuant can be imposed upon a deputy during the session, or for an works before or after, in consequence of any civil procos (art. 51). During the session, no theneber can be prosecuted or acrested on a crunand charge, except with the permission of the chamber, in consequence of Jas being guilty of a dagram offence, at 1524. No pention to either of the cleands to permatted to be made verbally at their barmust be delivered in writing (art. 53). Gee Pair.). The memsters of state may be members of either chamber, and must be heard, if they demand it, by the peers as well as by the deputies (art. 51) chamber of deputies alone has the right to impeach the ministers, the peers, to try them (art. 55). Ministers can only be impeached for treason and extortion (concussion, art. 56). All pisuce emanates from the king (art. 57). The judges appointed by the king are notycmovable (art. 5-). The pistices of the peace, though appointed by the king, are removable (art. 61). No one can be tried except before the orderary judges; therefore no estraordinary tebunals nor commissions, so called, can be created (art.

62, 63). The dehates in the courts are public in criminal cases, unless publicity, in a given case, would be injurious to the morals of the community (art. 64). The jury is preserved (art. 65). Confiscation is jury is preserved (art. 65). for ever abolished (art. 66). The king has the right of pardoning and of mitigating sentences (art. 67). The civil code, and the laws existing at the time when the charter was granted, which are not contrary to the same, remain in force until they are legally changed (art. 68). The Every kind of , public debt is guarantied. engagement entered into by government with its creditors is inviolable (art. 70). The old nobility resume their titles; the The king creates nobles according to his pleasure; but he does not thus exempt from any duty or burthen (art. 71). The legion of honor is maintained (art. 72). The colomes are governed by particular laws and regulations (art. 73). The king and his successors shall swear to observe the present constitutional charter (art. 74).

However unsatisfied a great portion of the people may have been, in the beginning, with this constitution, granted by the king's sovereign authority, it has now become dear to the nation; for it is evident, that the party of the old nobility does not intend to preserve even these imperfect foundations of a constitutional monarchy, but considers them merely as the means of quicting public opinion for the present, and as, in reality, the first step in the return to the old state of things. Fire la charte! is the watch-word of one party, while I we be Roi' is that of the other; and the wish of the former is, perhaps, more sincere than that of the latter; for, the more attentifely we consider the measures of the ulfre-royalists, as they are called the more clearly we percewe that their ultimate object is not the establishment of the royal power, but that their present policy is to extend it merely as a necessary pre-homary to the recovery of those privileges, the abuse of which was the principal cause, and their annihilation the first consequence, of the revolution. The restoration of the confiscated estates of the emigrants, the ree-tablishment of the seigneurial rights, feudal taxes, titlies, and, above all, the exclusive right to the higher offices in state and church, are so openly demanded, that the term seigneur has already been heard in the chamber of deputies. The contest on the following question is, therefore, of vital importance:—whether the king granted the Charte of his own authority, as an edict resting solely on the royal will, and

binding neither the monarch himself nor his successors (which is the assertion of the royalists); or whether, by it, the king concluded an irreversible compact with the nation, declaring the common will, as the chief representative of the French people. Many desiderata still exist, which are either expressly promised by the Charte to be supplied (as, for instance, more definite provisions with respect to -the responsibility of public officers), or tacitly, as necessary to complete it (among which must be reckoned, particularly, a better form of administration in the separate municipalities). Those abuses with which Napoleon's government has been principally reproached, the arbitrary administration under constitutional forms, the prefectures, and the bureaucracy (see Eureau), from the minister to the maire, are still the same. The commulnaties and departments have not regained the free and independent administration of their domestic concerns, which had been secured to them by the first laws of the revolution, and which, indeed, constitutes one of the principal conditions on which the welfare of the pation de-But the determination of this pends. point by law is one of the most difficult questions that can arise, and deserves the most mature consideration, because it opcrates directly upon the people, and concerns interests which are dear able to the rich and the poor. The law proposed to the deputies in the session of 1821 bore the stamp of the ministry of that time, at the head of which was Pasquier, who, thinking that the aristocras might be made the instruments of the government, offered them those half concessions which imbittered one party without reconciling the other. The richest members of every municipality w<u>ere</u> to be permitted to choose their magistrates, and were themselves to form a part of them without the necessity of being chosen; yet the powers of these magistrates, as well as those of the deputations of the cantons and departments. were very limited. (For further informa-tion respecting the French, government, see Louis XVIII, Charles X, &c.)

Charter. Every written document in the middle ages was called carta, charta or chartula. There were several kinds, distinguished by difficient names, according to the nature of the subjects, or the materials on which they were written, or their internal or external form. Thus a kind of documents, common in England, are called indentures (charta indentate or partial, because originally written on one

piece of parchment, which was afterwards cut asunder in an indented form, so that the fitting of the several parts to each other was considered necessary to prove their genuineness. (It was also customa-ry to write a word, commonly the word chirographum, lengthwise between the two instruments, and cut it in two, whence such an instrument was called chirographum.) This method has also been resorted to as a means of securing certificates of stock from being counterfeited: they are bound up, and then cut out, so that each number must fit the part belonging to it remaining in the book. Charle per crucem or per punctum signified, i. the middle ages, charters signed only by a cross or point, for want of the knowledge of writing in the signer. signification which is now usually affixed to the word charter, meaning a document relating to public law, the constitution of a state, or some parts of it, likewise originated in England, where the royal grants of certain privileges to towns or other corporations are styled chartee libertatum, or charters. No European nation has set so high a value on documents of this nature, none has maintained its ancient rights and libernes with so much care and jeulousy, as the English; for which reason the litcrature of this department is richer among them than in any other nation. Since 1783, when the Domesday-Book, that celebrated account of landed property, or register and description of all feudal estates, in the time of William I (commenced in 1080, and finished in 1085), was printed at the expense of parliament, and particularly since 1800, when a committee of parha ment was appointed for the purpose of making search after the ancient docu-ments that might be still extant, and causing them to be printed, much has been done by the English for promoting the publication of these monuments of their history and constitution. Rymer's collection (Firdera, Conventiones, Litera et cujuscunque Generis Acta publica inter Reges Anglia, & c., 1704-35, 20 vols., tol.; Hague, 1745, 10 vols., folio) was, even m the first edition, very complete for a private collection, and a model in its kind: the 2d and part of the 3d edition have appeared under the direction and at the expense of parliament, and are far superior to the former. The first whome of this work appeared in 1816. According to the report of the committee, in 1821, 45 vols., fol., of ancient documents, had then been printed since 1801, comprising a period of more than 700 years, which shed

great light on history and politics. The city of London is still in possession of two original charters, granted by William 1 in the year 1066, one of which confirms the privileges which the city had received from Edward the Confessor, and the other bestows on it the fief of Gyddersdaur, They are handsomely written, in the Anglo-Saxon language, on two pieces of parchment, each six inches in length, by one in breadth, the former consisting of nine lines, the latter of three. The seals, though broken in pieces, are still attached to them, enclosed mailk bags. In France, the fundamental law of constitutional liberry, given by Louis XVIII, is called Charte constitutionnelle (q. v.). In 1822, there was established in France a school of charters (ecole des charles), to instruct young men in deciphering and explaining the charters of the middle ages, which are to be found in the French archives. There is, even since the revolution has destroyed so many documents, an immense mass of grants, charters, &c., written on parchinent, many of great antiquity, in France. Mr. Isambert has collected, in the preface to vol. I of his useful Recueil des Anciennes Lois du Royaume, weenrate and extensive information respecting the catalogues, descriptions, places of deposit, & c. of charters.

CHARTER-PARTY IS A CONTRET Under hand and scal, executed by the freighter and the master or owner of a ship, contaming the terms upon which the ship is fixed to freight. The masters and owners usually bind themselves, the ship, tackle and furmiture, that the goods treighted shall be delivered (dangers of he sea excepted) well-conditioned at the place of the discharge; and they also covariant to provide manners, tackle, & c., and to equip the ship complete and adequate to the voyage. The freighter stipulates to pay the consideration money for the freight; and penalties are annexed to enforce the reciprocal covenants.

CHARTRIS (anciently, Intricum and Carnutum); a city of France, in the Eine-and-Loire, 11 posts S. W. Paris, 184 N. N. E. Tours, Ion. 1º 13 E.; lat. 48° 27' N. The population amounts to 15,000. It is the see of a bishop. It is one of the most ancient towns of the country, and contains a cathedral, 8 churches, an hospital, a pubhe library of 25,000 volumes, and a cabinet of natural history. The streets are marrow, but some of the houses are uncommonly neat, and the cathedral is esterned one of the most beautiful churches in the kingdom. It is situated on the

Eure, over which is a bridge, the work of the celebrated Vauban. The principal trade is in corn, wine and manufactured goods. Regnier, the poet, Nicole, Brissot and Desportes were natives of this place.

CHARTREUSE, OF GREAT CHARTREUSE; a farmous Carthusian monastery in France, a little N. E. of Grenoble, situated at the foot of high mountains. It was founded in 1086. (See Carthusians.)

CHARREDIS; a daughter of Neptune and Terra, whom Jupiter, on account of her insatiable rapacity, hurled, into the sea, where she became a whirlpool, and swallowed up every ship that approached her. This mythological fiction was occagoned by the whirlpool in the Sicilian sea, which was the more dangerous to inexperienced navigators, because, in endeavoring to recape it, they ran the risk of being wrecked upon Scylla, a rock opposite to it. Charybdis is no longer dreadful to navigators, who, in a quiet sea, and particularly if the south wind is not blowing, cross it without danger. Its present. names are Calofaro and La Rema. The carthquake of 1783 is said to have much schromsbed its violence.

CHASE, Samuel, a celebrated judge, and one of the signers of the declaration of independence, was born April 17, 1741, in Somerset county, Maryland. His cather, a learned elergyman, instructed him in the ancient classics, and subsequently placed him at Annapolis as a student of law. He was admitted to the bar at the age of 20. The talents, industry, intrepidity, imposing stature, sonorous voice, fluent and energetic electrion, raised him to emmence in a very few years. become a member of the colonial legislature, headistinguished himself by his bold opposition to the royal governor and the court party. He took the lead in denouncing and resisting the famous stamp act. This revolutionary spirit, his oratory and reputation, placed him at the head of the active adversaries of the British government in his state. The Maryland convention of the 22d of June, 1774, appointed him to attend the faceting of the general congress at Philadelphia, in September of that year. He was also present and conspicuous at the session of December following and in the subsequent congresses, during the most critical periods of the revolution. That of 1776 deputed him on a mission to Canada, along with doctor Franklin, Charles Carroll of Carrollton, and the reverend John Carroll, afterwards Catholic archbishop of Baltimore. It was Mr. Chase who de-

nounced to congress the reverend dector Zubly, a delegate from Georgia, as a traitor to the American cause, and forced him to a precipitate and ignominious flight. He signed the declaration of indepentive and able member of congress almost throughout the war; at the end of which he returned to the practice of his profes-sion. In June, 1783, the legislature of Maryland sent him to London, as a commissioner, to recover stock of the bank of England, and large sums of money which belonged to the state. He remained in . England nearly a year, during which time he put the claim in a train of adjust-Therefile passed much of his time in the society of the most criment state-men and lawyers. In the year 17:91, he accepted the appointment of chief jubee of the general court of Maryland. Live years afterwards, president Washagron made him an associate judge of the supreme court of the U. States. Inical cases of deep interest having been tried when he presided in the circuit courts, and his conduct having given much displeasure to the democratic par-IV, he was unpeached by the house of representatives at Washington. The trial of the judge before the senate is memoralde on account of the excrement which it produced, the ability with which he was defended, and the nature of his acquiral. A full report of it has been published. He continued to exercise his judicial sinctions, with the highest reputation, until the year 1811, in which his health failed. He expired June 19 of that year. Chase led an eventful and important his. and established the character of a sagacions, erudite and fearless judge, and a patriot little inferior in ment to any of its contemporaries.

CHASING, in sculpture; the aft of eilbossing on metals. This is the art of venresenting figures, &c. on a kind of basic reliero, punched out from behand, and sculptured on the front with small classis ' and graver.

CHASSEKI : the first sultanasta that wife of the Turkish emperor who presents him, with the first prince. (See Turkey, near sthe close of the maich.)

CHASTELER (John Gabriel) marques of, grandee of Spain of the first rank, Andra-an master of ordeance or general of andler, military governor in Venice, descended in a collateral line from the dukes of Lorraine, was born in 1763, and received his first education at Metz, in the college de Fort. In 1776, he entered the Austri-

an service. After having served against the Turks (when he was severely wound. ed), he displayed his zeal for the house of Austria in the disturbances in the Noth lands. In 1796—97, he was employed in dence with promptitude, and was an ac- the negotiations of his court in Polan and Russia; was afterwards with Suway roff in Italy, where he distinguished himself in several engagements with the Freuch armies. In 1808, with Hormayr, he was the soul of the famous insurrection in the Tyrol, and all the political as well as mulitary events which were connected with it. Meanwhile, the disaster at Ratis-"bon (q. v.) had faken place. Chasteler was obliged to retreat into the northern part of Tyrol. Napoleon, enraged at the surrender of 8000 French and Bavarians at lunspruck, issued a proclamation at Enns, in which "a certain Chasteler, who calls hunself a general in the Austrian service, but who is the leader of a band of robbers, and the author of the murders committed upon the French and Bayarian prisoners, as well as the instigator of the Tyrolese insurrection," is declared an outlaw, and ordered to be brought before a court-martial, and shot within 24 hours. The emperor Francis commanded, that an order which violated all international laws, and which was the more censurable as Chasteler had taken particular care of the prisoners and the wounded, should be met by retaliation. The Bavarian army, tunder the command of the marshal duke of Dantzick, one red Tyrol: Charteler fearlessly encountered it; but his army was routed on the 1:th of May. After the close of the war, he received several appointments, and in December, 1814, was made governor of Vernee, where he died, May 7. 1825. The general was of a chivalrous cleaseter and a cultivated mind; he spoke i2 languages was as brave as he was gencrons, and was one of the noblest Walloons in the armies of Austria.

Chastelet (Gabrielle Englie de Bretetal; marquise du . of an ancient family m Pacardy: born in 1706. She was taught ' Letter by their father, baron Breteuil, and was as well acquainted with that language as madame Dacier (q. v.); but her favorite study was mathematics. She had a sound unigment and much taste; loved society and the amusements of her age and sex; but abandoned all these pleasures, and, in 17:33, retired to the dilapidated castle of Circy, situated in a dreary region on the borders of Champagne and Lorraine. the embellished this residence, formed # library, collected instruments, &c. Circy was often visited by the learned; for in-

stance, by Maupertuis, John Bernouili, ich of Voltaire in the space of three months, and read with him Newton, Locke and Pope. She learned Italian with equal rapidity. She also wrote an analysis of the system of Leibnitz, and translated Newton's Principia, with an Voltaire lived algebraic commentary. six years with her at Cirey. She then. went to Brussels, to prosecute a lawsuit, which was terminated by an advantageous compromise, brought about by Voltaire. She also carried on a correspondence with the German philosopher Wolf until her death. Her Traité de la Nature du Feu obtained the prize of the Parisian academy of sciences, and is published in their collections. Her bushand, the marquis du Chastelet Lomont, was high steward of king Stanislaus Leczinsky, at Lune-The marchioness died at Luneville,

m 1749. CHÂTEAUBRIAND, François Auguste, vicomte de; poer of France, nephew of the generous Malesherbes; one of the most distinguished hving French writers. He was born at Combourg, in Brittany, in 1769, and, in 1786, joined the regment of infinitry called the regiment of Navarre. During the bloody prescriptions of the revolution, he repaired to North America. A residence of two years among the satage tribes of Kentucky, whence, in 1790 and the following year, he penetrated as far as cape Mendoemo, on the Pacific, had a decisive influence upon his charac-ter as a politico-religious poet. While in America, he wrote a work of a poetical character, although not in verse, called The Natches, in which he describes the manners of the Indian tribes. This appeared, for the first time, in 1826, in the collection of his works. In 1792, he icturned to Europe, to fight under the banners of the emigrants, and was wounded \* at the siege of Thionville. This circumstance, together with some others, induced him to go to England. There his narrow circumstances obliged him to turn author, and he formed an intimacy with count de Fontanes. At that time, he wrote his Essai historique, politique et moral sur les Révolutions anciennes et modernes, considéries dans leur Rapport avec la Révolution ! Francaise (Historical, political and moral Essay on ancient and modern Revolutions, considered in Relation to the French Revolution', Lepdon, 1797, and Leipsic. There are study opinions in this work, which the most enlightened men would not disavow, ex-

cepting, indeed, M. de Unateautriand himself. He has since publicly acknowledged his former errors (see errows), and written "a new work, with an old faith." ("Feris," says he, "un ourrage neuf once une foi chitque.")" For so it happened, that when Napoleon placed himself at the head of affairs, the author of the Essai historique immediately announced his abjuration of liberal ideas. "Under a government which prescribes no peaceable opinions," says he, in the preface to the third edition of his Atala, 1801, "it may be permitted to undertake the defence of Christianity as a literary subject." that time, he called Bonaparte "one of those men whom Providence, when weary of punishing, sends into the world as a . pledge of reconciliation.". The first edition of Châteaubriand's Génie du Christianisme (Genius of Christianity) appeared in England in 1802. It was afterwards published in France also. The tale of . Itala composed the 18th book of it. This work made a great impression; and, indeed, every thing in it is calculated merely for effect. The time in which it appeared was happily chosen, as Bonaparte entertained the wish of restoring the authority of the church. Twenty-five years carlier, it would have found as little favor in the eyes of the Sorbonne as with the . in iteraries of that society; but the prelates did not think proper to express their discontent at the somewhat worldly views of the author, since they appeared to be best adapted to excite religious feelings among such a people as the French of , that time. After the 18th Brumaire, Chateaubriand returned to France, entered into a connexion with Fontanes, La Harne, and other distinguished scholars, and became joint editor of the Mercure. In 1803, he was, for a short time, secretary to the legation in Rome, under cardinal Fesch. This residence inspired his imagmation with the idea of the Martyrs, which is a religious poem, though not in netre. In the same year, he was appointed French minister in the Valais, but sent in his resignation immediately after the death of the duke d'Enghien (March, 1804). In 1806, he travelled through Greece and Rhodes to Jerusalem, from whence he went to Alexandria, Cairo and Cartifuge, and returned by way of

Chareauterand, in 1811, published a new edition of his Thant, in which all those passages which a certain class of people are displeased with are changed. But in 1824, a reprint of the skil chinoi of the Essat, of the year 1797, which had become very rare, appeared at Paris, with notes, and all the metamorphoses of the edution of 1814.

VOL. III.

10

Spain to France, in May, 1807. Accord-.. ing to his own words, he brought back, as sestimonials of his pilgrimage and his faith, a dozen pebbles from Sparta, Argos and Corinth, a phial of water from the Jordan, together with a roshry, a flask filled with water of the Dead sea, and a bunch of sedge from the banks of the Nile. - Soon after, he lost his property in the Mercure de France, on account of some remarks on M. de la Borde's Travels , in Spain, in which the emperor thought he discovered some offensive allusions. About this time, Chateaubriund's Martyrs appeared. It was to be expected that it . would not be universally approved. When Chateaubrand succeeded Joseph Chénie as a member of the institute, in 1811, instead of pronouncing a culogy on his predecessor, as is customary in the inaugural discourse of a member, he treated him with very little forbearance. His conduct on this occasion can only be attributed to his personal resentments, or to a design of fomenting party desensions. In this oration, however, and still more frequently in the Itinéraire de Paris à Jérusulem, are passages devoted to the praise of Napoleon; partly, indeed, because the author was an admirer of his military glory, and partly because (according to his own confession) he could not neglect the interests of his publisher by disregarding voted for the lois d'exception. (See Ez-a hint received from the minister of ception, Laws of.) When the duke of police. At length, the disasters of 1812 encouraged his hope of the restoration of the Bourbon, and, in April, 1814, he published his famous pamphlet De Bonaparte et des Bourbons, which has been translated into almost all the European languages. It is impossible to write more boldly against a power which has ceased to exist. The man sent by Providence (envoye par la L'roridence) is painted us strongly as before, but with entirely new In this publication, the vicomte declared himself decidedly for the ultra-royalists, to whom he has been, for a long time, a faithful adherent. He endeavored, at the same time, to exercise some influence on public opinion, and, by his Reflexions politiques sur que gues Bro-chures du Jour (Political Reflections on some Pamphlets of the Day, he recommended himself to the ministry of that period. On Napoleon's return from Elbert, ter his return, became the duke's successor he followed Louis XVIII to Ghent, and in the department of foreign affairs (Dec. the nee back to Paris. While at Ghent, in 28, 1822), because his opinions coincided May, 1815, he presented a report to the king on the condition of France, in which certain interests were so imprudently menaced that Napoleon caused it to be printed and

distributed in Paris. August 19, 1815, he was made minister of state and peer. As such, he voted for the rigorous measures against political intrigues (intrigues politiques), declared himself in favor of the restitution of the old judicial forms, and against the partial renovation of the chamber of deputies, &c. March 21, 1816, he became a member of the acade-Six months afterwards appeared his work, La Monarchie selon la Charte (The Monarchy according to the Charter), in which some good, ideas are artfully blended with doctrines, which, if carried into practice, would be equally prejudicial to the royal authority and the rights of the people. Having permitted himself, in this work, to express some doubts of the sincerity of the king's purposes, as expressed in the ordinance of Sept. 5, his name was struck from the list of the nunisters of state—a step which was very unfavorably viewed by the faubourg of St. German. From that time Châteaubriand often assailed the measures of Decazes, declaring that France would be ruined if the character of the administration were not changed. The Moniteur of Aug. 21, 1818, attacked, in strong terms, his Remarques sur les Affaires du Moment (Remarks on the present State of Affairs). At a later period (1820), Châteaubriand Bordenny was baptized, he pre-ented the duchess of Berri with a phial of water from the Jordan; and, on this occasion, the question was started, why he did not, in 1511, spruckle with this romantic water "the crad", which contained the destinies of the future." In 1820, Chateaubriand wen as minister plempotentiary and en-voy extraordinary to Berlin, but, in the following year, returned to Paris, where, April 30, 1821, he was appointed minister of state and member of the privy council. In August of the same year, he resigned the post of minister of state. In 1822, he was appointed extraordinary ambassador to London, in the place of Decazes—a post with which an income of 300,000 francs, and an outlit of 150,000 francs, are connected. But he soon returned to Paris, accompanied the duke of Montinorener to the congress of Verona, and, afwith the views of Villèle on the Spanish affairs, being more moderate than those of many of the royalists. The instructions to the count de la Garde, French

amhassador at Madrid, were drawn up in , the same spirit, on the breaking out of the war. But a coldness soon arose between Villèle and Châteaubriand, the former not approving the latter's romantic notions in the cause of the Spanish royalists. Chateambriand was consoled on this occasion by receiving the Russian order of St. Andrew, and the Prussian order of the black cagle. \*As, however, he did not support Villèle's project relative to the reduction of the 'five per cents,' when discussed in the chamber of peers, expecting, perhaps, that, if Villèle's proposal did not pass, the fall of this minister would be the consequence, he himself received his dismission, June 5, 1824. He then declared hinself against Villèle. After the death of Louis XVIII, Châteanbriand published, Sept. 17, a pamphlet, under the title Le Roi est mort : vive le Roi ! (The King is dead: long live the King!)\* which obtained him the favor of the court and the king. He did not, however, receive a place in the ministry. He therefore joined the opposition, taking advantage of the liberty of the press to make severe attacks on the measures of the ministry, in ably written articles, which appeared in the Journal des Débats; and there is no doubt that he contributed much to Vilicle's final overthrow. A very well written account of this overthrow is contained in the North American Reviews July, 1828, article Politics of Europe. His pamphlet De l'albidition de la Censure (On the Abolition of the Censors ship), in which he advanced the proposition that a representative government, without the liberty of the press, is worthless, met with great approbation. In 1825 appeared his eloquent Note sur la Grèce (Note on Greece), advocating the cause of the Greeks, in favor of whom he also spoke with great energy in the chamber of peers. He has been lately engaged in the publication of his Œurres completes (Complete Collection of his Works), in 25 vols., for which the bookseller Ladvocat has paid him 550,000 francs. Among his works are Mémoires, Lettres et Pièces authentiques touchant la Vie,et la Mort du Duc de Berri. M. Châteaubriand was, for a time, the chief editor of the Conservateur. This journal was continued by Fiévée, but ceased when the law establishing the censorship appeared. teaubriand's writings breathe a poetic spirit. They are composed with warmth, replete with images, spirited, and not

\* The ancient cry by which the death of the king of France is always announced.

without power: many of his descriptions," in particular, may be called excellent: yet his ideas are destitute of solidity and connexion. However distinguished, there... fore, may be the rank which his talents for description have procured him among popular writers, yet none of his works can he called classic, if we reserve this name for the works of a lofty and independent. mind, which combine richness of ideas with profoundness and solidity, which never distort the truth by sophisms, the illusions of the imagination, or inflated, expression. Many of his works are translated into English; but they are less valued in England than in France, and still less in America than in England. Lady Morgan calls him the solitary and inimitable successor of the Coucys, Nesles, Chatillons and Montforts, the last of the crusaders and noble palmers of Europe.

CHÂTEAUROUX, Marie Anne, duchess of, of the illustrious house of Nesle, was married to the marques de la Tournelle in 1734. Being left a widow at the age of 23, she was received by her aunt, the duchess Mazarin, but soon lost this support. Her two sisters (mesdaines de Vintimillé and Mailly) had successively been in the possession of the heart of Louis XV. when the king conceived an ardent passion for her. She was made lady of honor to the queen, and afterwards duchess of Chateauroux, with a pension of 80,000 livres. By her persuasion, Louis XV put himself at the head of the armies in Flanders and Alsace. He fell sick at Metz, his life was despuired of, and he was obliged to consent to the dismission of the duchess. She was received in Paris by Richelieu, who, after the king's recovery, effected her recall. Her triumph was complete, and she was promised the important post of superintendent of the dauphiness, when she died, in 1744. A collection of her letters appeared in Paris, 1806, in two small volumes.

CHATELET was anciently a small chateau or fortress, and the officer who commanded it was called châtelain. The word is a diminutive of château, formed from castellum, a diminutive of castrum; or from castellatum, a diminutive of castellum, castle. The term, in later times, has been applied to certain courts of justice, established in several cities in France. The grand châtelet, in Paris, was the place where the presidial or ordinary court of justice of the previt of Paris was kept, consisting of a presidial, a civil chamber, a criminal chamber, and a chamber of police. The term signified the same at

Montpellier, Orleans, &c. When Paris was confined to the limits of the old city cite), it could be entered buly by two bridges (le petit pont and le pont au change), each of which was fortified with , two towers,-a smaller one in the wall, facing the city, and a larger one before the bridge, towards the country. These two exterior turrers are the grand and petit châtelet. The tradition that the grand chatelet was built by Julius Carsar, though adopted by some literati (c. g. l.a. Marre, in his Traite de Police, vol. i, p. . 87), is not well supported; but it is certain that the great tower was standing as . early as the niege of the city by the Normans (885). The grand chatelet was the castle of the counts of Paris, and, theretere, the seat of all the royal courts of justice within the city and county, and also of the feudal court. The city had no proper jurishetion whatever; its bailiff or provost (privot) was appointed by the king, and was president of the court (though only nominally, because he had no voice in the judgments), and, by virtue of his office, leader of the nobility. The office of provost of the merchants (prevôt des marchands; in other cities, maire). established before the former, and afterwards united with it for a time, was finally separated from it in 1358. The business of the chatelet was transacted by the deputies of the baileff (lieutenants), of thetween King Georg the Third's archiwhom there were five, three for civil causes, one chief judge of criminal cases, and a lieutemant-general of police (lieuten-ant-general de la police). The latter, indeed, was minister of police for the whole kingdom, and the extent of his functions and power, particularly after the new arrangement, made by the celebrated d'Argenson, under Louis XIV, rendered him one of the most important officers of the state. In the chatelet, however, he held only the fourth place. The whole court of justice, was composed of 56 counsellors, with 13 state attorneys, and a multitude of subalterns, as 63 secretaries or greffiers, 113 notaries, 236 attorneys, &t. · All these offices were sold. The place of the first officer of the civil chamber was rated at 500,000 livres; that of a notary at 40,000 livres. The châtelet was first in rank after the supreme courts (cours soureraines).

CHATELET, the marchioness of. (See

Chambelet.

CHATHAM; a town in Kent, England, on the Medway, united to the city of Rochester, of which it is considered a sabarb; 30 miles E. London; population, 15.268.

An immense It is celebrated for its dock. quantity of haval stores of all kinds are kept ready, in magazines and warehouses. arranged in such regular order that whatever is wanted may be procured without', the least confusion. Above 20 forges are constantly at work. Anchors are made, some of which weigh five tons. In the rope-house, which is 700 feet in length, cables have been made 120 fathoms long, and 22 inches found. The dock-yard is about a mile long, the sail-loft 209 feet in length, and there are large store-rooms, one of which is 658 feet long. Here is an hospital for decayed seamen and theirwidows The town is defended by fort Pitt, and very extensive fortifications called the lines; and, with the exception of Portsmouth, Chatham is considered the most regular and complete fortress in Great Britain.

Many towns and counties in America ary called Chatham, after the great miniter (q. v.); also straits, islands, &c.; for instance, Chatham bay, or Punjo bay, or the S. W. co.st of East Plorida, lon. 81' 30' W., lat. 25° 30' N.—Chatham island, in the South Pacific ocean; lon. 183° 10' E., lat. 11' S .- Chatham sound, between the i-lands of Dundas and Stephens, on the W. coast of North America. - Chatham strait, a channel of the North Pacific ocean, on the coast of North America, pelago and Admiralty island, rather more than 100 miles if length from N. to S.

CHATHAN (William Pittl, earl of; one of the illustrious statesmen of England, ' wha ruled his native country solely by the superiority of his genius. Integrity, disinterestedness and patriotism were united in him with indefingable industry, promptitu ic and sagnety. In cloquence he was tever surpassed by any of his countrymen. His speeches were bold and subhme, and his influence over the minds of his audience was irresistible. His case and dignity, fine voice and masterly ges ticulation (in which even Garrick allowed him to be his superior), preposeesed his hearers in his favor, while the perspicuity and power of his arguments carried conviction. He was the son of Robert Pitt of Boconnoc, in Cornwall, born in 1708, and educated at Eton and Oxford. On quitting the university, he became a cor net in the blues, and, in 1735, represented the borough of Old Sarum in the house of commons, where he attracted universal notice. He was a powerful opponent of or Robert Walpole, who revenged him self by taking away his commission. In

1744, he received, on account of his pairiton, baron Pynsent and earl of Chatham. otism, a legacy of £10,000 from the duching in 1768, he resigned, as he found himself ess of Mariborough, and, at a later period, inadequately seconded by his colleagues. a considerable estate was bequeathed him by sir. W. Pynsent. He had been appointed gentleman of the bed-chamber to the prince of Wales, but resigned this place in 1745; became, in 1746, vicetreasurer of Ireland, paymaster-general of . the army, and member of the privy-council. In 1755 Mr. Pitt was turned out of office. In 1756, he was appointed secretary of state, but was dismissed in the same nation, however, was enthusiastically attached to him, and the public discontent was so loudly manifested, that he was appointed secretary of state again in 1757. His great mind now revealed its full force. His ascendency was complete over the parliament no less than in the munstry; he aroused the English nation to new activity, and, in the space of a few years, recovered the superiority over France, annihilating her navy, and stripping her of her colonies. France was beaten in the four quarters of . the world. In 1760, he advised the declaration of war against Spain, while she was unprepared for resistance, as he foresaw that she would assist France. The elevation of England on the runs of the house of Bourbon was the great object of his policy. But his plans were suddenly interrupted by the death of George II. George III was prejudiced against Put by his adversary, the earl of Bute, a state-man of limited views. Pitt, therefore, resigned his post in 1761, only retaining his seat in the house of commons. On his retirement, his wife was created baroness Chatham. The thanks of the city of London were presented to him in a public address, an inscription in his honor was ordered to be placed on Bluckfriar's bridge, and he was declared the palladium of England's liberty. In 1762, when Spain formally allied herself with France, Pitt urged the continuance of the war, by which both states would, perhaps, have been totally exhausted; but peace was concluded by the opposite party in 1763. Pitt uniformly supported the cause of the people. Foreseeing the separation of the American colonics from the mother country, if the arbitrary measures then adopted should be continued, he advocated, especially in 1766, a conciliatory policy, and the repeal of the stamp act. In the same year, he was invited to assist in forming a new ministry, in which he took the office of privy seal, and was created viscount Bur-

In the house of lords, he continued to recommend the abandonment of the coercive measures employed against America, particularly in 1274; but his warning was rejected, and, in 1776, the colonies declared themselves independent. In vain did he renew his motion for reconciliation in 1777; in vain did he declare the con-. quest of America impossible. April 7. 1778, though laboring under a severe illyear, on account of his opposition to the ness, he repaired to the house to attack Hanoverian policy of George II. The the unjust and impolitic proceedings of the ministers towards the colonies. the close of his speech, he fainted and fell backwards; he was conveyed out of the house, and afterwards removed to his country-seat at Hayes, in Kent, where he died, May 11. The parliament annexed an annuity of £4000 to the earldom of Chatham; his debts were paid, and he was honored with a public funeral, and a magnificent monument in Westminster abbey. Another was erected, in 1782, in Guildhall. The sentiments of lord Chat-ham were liberal and elevated, but he was haughty, and impatient of contradiction, and perhaps exhibited too marked a consciousness of his own superiority. His private was as estimable as his public character. To use the language of lord Chesterfield, "it was stained by no vice, nor sullied by any meanness." No literary production of lord Chatham, except one or two short poems, had appeared, until the publication by lord Grenville, in 1804, of his "Letters" to his nephew, afterwards the first lord Camelford, which contain much excellent advice to a young man, clothed in easy and familiar language, and reflect equal honor on the author's head and heart. In the U. States, where lord Chatham was very popular, several places are called after his title. Pittsburg was so called from his family name.

CHATILLON, CONGRESS OF, from the 5th of Feb. to the 19th of March, 1814, WITH THE CONTEMPORARY MILITARY EVENTS. The negotiations of the allied powers with Napoleon, begun at Frankfort, Oct. 10 and Nov. 27, 1813, but broken off, when, in consequence of their declaration of Dec. 1, the theatre of war was transferred to the heart of France, Jan. 8, 1814, were renewed in the small town of Chatillon-sur-Seine (chief place of an atrondissement, in the department Côte d'Or, with 3967 inlubitants), which had been declared neutral. Caulaincourt (duke of Vicenza), who

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bail succeeded Maret (duke of Bassano) corps, under Yorck, bad pushed forward, as minister of foreign affairs, was waiting, Feb. 9, as far as La-Ferté-sous-Jouanne, in that place, the answer of prince Metternich to his last letter. Lord Castlerough conducted the negotiations in the name of Great Britain: besides him, there were three other British ministers present-lords Catheart, Aberdeen and Stewart. Count Razumoffsky was the minister of Russia, count Stadion of Austria, and baron William von Humboldt of Prussia. The history of this congress is closely the transactions of this period had so great. an influence upon the whole war, as well as upon the subsequent policy of Europe, that we shall treat them somewhat at length. After the battle of Brienne, or La Rothière (see Brienne), Napoleon retreated through Troyes, Feb. 8, to Nogent on the Scine, about 20 leagues from Paris. The allies, on the other hand, had resolved, in a council of war held at Brienne, Feb. 2, not to pursue the French army with united forces, because the country would not afford sufficient supplies for the two armies on one road. Schwarzenberg and Blücher separated, therefore, for the purpose of taking different routes to Paris: the former went through Troyes, and, after driving back the corps of Napoleon, occupied both banks of the Seine, Feb. 7; the latter passed through Areis and Chalons, for " the purpose of uniting with the corps of Yorck, Kleist and Langeron, along the banks of the Aube and Marne, towards Meaux. But Blücher, instead of awaiting the northern army, which was advancing from Belgium, pushed forward in pursuit of Macdonald, and advanced too hastily into Champagne. Between him, and the main army there was a distance of three or four days' march, of which Napoleon took advantage, in spite of the badness of the roads, and, by the rapidity and boldness of his movements, was enabled to do much injury to the albes. Meanwinle the congress had been opened, Feb. 5, Napoleon having offered to surrender unmediately all the fortresses in those countries which were to be ceded by France, if the allies would grant him an armastice. But , the latter were desirous of signing the preliminaries of a peace, by which her former limits should be guarantied to France, on condition that Napoleon would deliver up six of the most important fromtier fortresses. Such was the state of the negotiations, when Napoleon-threatened on his right, east of Troyes, by Schwarzenherg, and on his left out-flanked and surrounded by Blücher, whose advanced

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three days' march from Paris-by a sudden movement, traversed the centre of the line formed by the divisions of the Silesian army, which were separated from each other by considerable intervals, and thus pressed forward on the rear and left flank of the enemy. Leaving 36,000 men under Victor, Oudinot and Milhaud, to prevent the passage of the Seine and Yonne by Schwarzenberg, he advanced, Feb. 9, with connected with the course of the war, and the divisions of Ney and Marmont, and the guards under Mortier, composing a body of 30,000 men, from Nogent-stur-Seing-over the Seine to Sezanne, and, on the 10th, at Champ-Aubert, attacked, with 6000 horse, the Russian division of Alsusieff, which consisted of 5000 men with 24 cannon. The Russian general, after a gallant resistance, was obliged to surrender with 2000 men: 2000 escaped through the woods, and 15 cannon fell into the hands of the enemy. Napoleon was now in the rear of the advanced guard under Sacken and the division of Yorck. The former, therefore, with 20,000 men, hastily fell back from La-Perte to Montmirail, where he was received, Feb. 11, by Na poleon, who had already occupied Monmiral, was defeated in a bloody action at the villages of L'Epine and Marchais, and, after a loss of 2400 men killed, and 1000 men and 9 cannon taken, was compelled a to retreat by night. Covered by the arms val of a part of Yorck's division, he contunued his retreat to Château-Thierry, which he reached in full flight, but not before his rear had suffered a second defeat on the heights of Nesle, Feb. 12, with a loss of 2000 men. At Chitquu-Thierry, the passage to the right bank of the Marne being covered by prince William of Prussia, with 2000 men, Sacken and Yorck, the latter of whom had, in the mean time, retreated from Mears, pursued by Mac donald, fell back toward Rheims. Them while Blucher, on the 12th, upon the first notice of Napoleon's diversion, had concentrated the division under lieutenant general von Kleist, and that commanded by general Kapzewitsch, at Bergeres, and, supposing that Napoleon had been repulsed by generals Yorck and Sacken, advanced, with 20,000 men, to Etoges, where, on the 13th, he attacked Marmont, who had been sent, by Nupoleon, to meet him, and forced him back towards Montmirail, as far as Vauchamp, in order to effect a union with Yorck and Sacken. But, on the 14th, Napoleon overtook the Prussiun vanguard at that place and Joinvilliers. Blücher soon found himself atto retreat. He formed the infantry into solid bodies, and placed the cannon be-tween them, and the cavalry upon the wings. On this day, at Vauchamp and. Lages, the army of Silenia (so called) was saved by the gallantry of the Prussian soldiers, and by the heroism of their leaders-Blücher, Gneisenau, Kleist, and prince Augustus of Prussia. The French, notwithstanding their superiority in cavalry, were not able to break through the Prussian squares. Grouchy occupied Champ-Aubert and the road to Etoges with 6000 horse, for the purpose of cutting off Blucher's retreat; but it was in vain. Though encircled by the enciny, the Prussians and Russians repelled repeated attacks on their tlanks, and retired in solid columns, fighting at every step, till they reached the wood of Etoges. Here, also, they were obliged to force their way through masses of the enemy's infantry, which had arrived before them; and their rear, being attacked at the same time by Grouchy's cavalry on the flank and by the infantry of Marmont in front, was principally dispersed and made prisoners. Blucher did not reach the position at Bergeres until night, after a loss of 4000 men, and 9 cannon. On the 16th, he retired, though not pursued, to Chalons on the Marne, where he joined the divisions of York and Sacken, and the columns of Langeron, that were has-tening to his relief. The Filesian army had lost a fourth of its number—nearly 15,000 men—during the last six days, but now again amounted to 60,000 men. Meanwhile Witgenstein and Wrede had crossed the Seme, and were now in Napoleon's rear, while prince Schwarzenberg had forced back the French corps posted, on the 19th, which was succeeded, on the along the Seine, on the 11th from Sens, on the 12th from Nogent, on the 15th This induced Napoleon to give up 15th, and to advance, on the 16th, with his army, now mereased to 100,000 men, by forced marches, from Montmirail to Means, in order to fall upon the separate divisions of the enemy's main army. Schwarzenberg, however, recommended the three divisions that were advancing en echelon on the right bank of the Seine, to cease from offensive movements. Witgenstein, nevertheless, proceeded on his murch, and his vanguard, under Pahlen,

was attacked by general Gerard, on the troked on every side, and, having at length 17th, at Mormant and Nangis, and suffered become aware of his tituation, determined a loss of several thousand men and 10. cannon. An action also took place on the . 18th, at Montereau, on the left bank of the Seine, at the confluence of the Yonne, in which the allies were defeated, and would have suffered still more injury than they did, if it had not been for the gallantry of the crown-prince of Würternberg. At the head of the fourth division, consisting of about 10,000 men and 38 field-pieces, he disputed the passage over , the Seine against general Gerard, who had succeeded Victor, and against the emperor himself, who attacked him with a force of 30,000 men and 60 cannon, until the evening of the 18th. The prince then passed the bridge at Montereau, under the fire of the enemy, and retreated unmolested to the main body, with a loss of 2000 men, beside prisoners, and cannon, which had become useless. Schwarzenberg was thus enabled to concentrate all. his forces at Troyes on the 19th. Napo-.. leon now flattered himself with the hope of being able to force him to a general battle as that place, where every thing promised the most decisive results. He also received the news of the victory of the viceroy of Italy over Bellegarde, on the Mineio, between the 8th and 10th of February,\* and his confidence was so much increased, that he resumed the full powers which he had given to Caulaincourt to conclude a peace, and assumed a prouder tone at Chaullon, on the 18th, than he had hitherto done. Schwarzenberg, however, crossed the Seine at Troyes the same night, and, on the 21st, being again united with Blücher, took his position along the right bank of that river as far as Mory. This much-censured retreat 25th, by that over the Aube to Colombe, in the direction of Chaumont, because from Montereau, Provins and other places, Augereau, from his position at Lyons, so that, on the 16th, the head-quarters of threatened the communication between the allied monarchs were advanced to the main army and Switzerland, saved the two armies of the allies, who, at that the pursuit of Blücher, at Etoges, on the moment, saw almost every thing that had been gained since the battle at Brienne again lost. Schwarzenberg ordered Bianchi, with 30,000 men, to advance along the Sadne against Augereau; at the same time, an armistice was offered to Napoleon

\* The aide-de-camp of the viceroy arrived with the report of that victory at the moment of Napoleon's success at Montereau Napoleon immediately sont him back with the words, "Retongez aupri's d'Europe, racontez-lan comment j'ai arrange ex genselà" (Return to Eugene, tell him in whist manner I have settled these people here!)

on the 19th, while his head-quarters were yet at Montereau; and a courier from Chatilion delivered to him the draught of preliminaries of peace, signed by all the lenipotentiaries of the allied powers at Châtillon, Feb. 17, 1814. From the cir-, cumstance that this convention was to be concluded between the powers of Austria, England, Russia and Prussia, and "his majesty the emperor of France, his heirs and successors," it appears that the English ministers at the congress did not think a particular article necessary, relative to the acknowledgment of Napoleon's title ar emperor, but that they considered it as already acknowledged. The council of regency that had been established in Paris, to whom the draught was communicated by the emperor, thought the conditions proposed therein admissible; but a clause, demanding the occupation of Paris by the allies until the final conclusion of the peace, offended Napoleon, who rejected \* the offer, exclaiming, "I am nearer Vienna than the allies are to Paris;" yet, at the same time, he endeavored to enter into separate negotiations with Austrias Nerther would be accept the renewed offer of an armistice, Feb. 23d, but, after the propositions delivered on the 25th by the , prince of Liechtenstein, consented that the negotiations which had been opened in the village of Lusigny, between Flahaut and the Austrian general Duca count Schuwaloff and the Prussan general Rauch, should be continued. But his attempt to separate Austria from the allies proved abortive: The emperor Francis, indeed, seemed not averse to a reconciliation with Napoleon; but the baron Langenau, who was commissioned to carry his propositions, was accidentally detained on the way, and thus the favorable mo-within a few miles from Paris, endeavored ment for Napoleon was lost. The four, to approach the northern army by passing powers, by the convention of Chaurgont (q. v.), concluded March 1, for the term of 20 years, soon after effered into at alliance against France, for the purpose of restoring and maintaining peace! According to this convention, they were deter-'mined to continue the war, if Napoleon would not accept the conditions offered ·him, and, if he accepted them, to enforce the terms with united forces. Thus the offensive and defensive alliance concluded at Chaumout became the diplomatic foundation of the present European policy.-Meanwhile, Napoleon followed the main army, constantly fighting, and, Feb. 25 occupied Troyes. Blücher, who had again separated himself from Schwarzenberg, crossed the Aube at Vaudemont. on

the 24th, in order to pass the left flank of the enemy, where Marmont and Mortier retired before him, direct his course towards the Lower Marne, and thus approach the northern army, which was rapidly advancing from Flanders. main army under Schwarzenberg, however, fell back upon the corps stationed at Langres, so that the Austrian army of 50,000 men, in the south of France, under the command of the prince of Hesse-Homburg, and the Silesian in the north, united with the divisions of Winzingerode and Woronzoff, that composed the advanced guard of the northern army under , Bulow formed the two wings of the main army. Napoleon could now throw himself, with his whole force, either upon Schwarzenberg, and oblige him to give battle, or upon Blücher. But how was the cautious, circumspect Schwarzenberg to be forced to fight? He therefore hastened after Blücher. But Tettenborn, whose light troops, belonging to the army that was advancing from Flanders, traversed the country on the left side of the Marne, discovered, Feb. 27, Napoleon's march from Areis-sur-Aube through Fere-Champenoise and Sézanne, towards Jon-arre. He communicated this news to Schwarzenberg and Blücher; the for-mer of whom immediately stopped his retreat, repelled the divisions of the enemy under Macdonald, Oudinot, and Geraid, forced his passage over the Aube,, Fels 27, while he assaulted Bar, but did not occupy Troyes, which is only 30 miles distant from Bar-sur-Aube, until March 4, the day after the engagement at Laubressel, where he resumed his former position on the Searc. Meanwhile Blucher, after having forced marshal Marmont back to over the Aisne, for the purpose of giving the main army more liberty of action His movements, and his union with the northern army under Winzingerode and Bulow, were favored by the surrender of Soissons,\* March 3. Bülow had entered France from Flanders, by Avesnes, caused. La Fere, where there were large quantities

<sup>\*</sup> At Sorsons, which has a bridge of stone, and is the key to Paris, for an army entering France from the Netherlands, and is consequently a place of military importance, though fortified only by a wall and chich, six causeys meet. Winzinge rode had taken this city by assault, Feb 14; but, after the action at Montairal, it had been occupied again by Mortier, Feb. 19 General Moreau (not the marshal), who surrendered Somons, March 3, was brought before a court-martial; but he for the state of Marshall and Marshall his life was saved by the events of the 31st of March

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of military stores and 100 cannon, to be taken by general Thumen, Feb. 26, then joined the division of Winzingerode, and advanced, March 2, from Leon towards Scissons. Blücher, with his army, now nearly 100,000 strong, took a position at Craonne, March 4th, and occupied Soissons, where general Rudezewitz, with 5000 Russians, repelled Mortier, who attempted to carry it by assoult, March 5. Napoleon, therefore, was obliged to pass the, the 11th, through Chavignon and Soissons.

Aisne above Soissons, which he did Had Blücher taken immediate advantage.

March 6, after having taken Rheims on of the victory obtained in the night of the the 5th, and made himself master of the bridge over the Aisne at Bery-au-Bac. On the 7th, he attacked generals Sacken and Woronzoff, on the heights of Craonne, and compelled the Russians, although not vanquished, to retreat into the position of Laon, with a loss of 4800 killed and The garrison of Soissons was wounded. The loss of also obliged to retire thither. the French amounted to 8000 killed and wounded. The battle at Laon, on the 9th of March, was more decisive. That city, which contains a population of 7000, was occupied by the allies, on account of its advantageous situation, as a depôt. Bülow had taken possession of the heights before Laon, Kleist and Yorck were posted on the left, and Winzingerode on the right wing. The left wing, which was most exposed, could be assisted by the corps of Sacken and Langeron. The areproach being rendered difficult by morasses and defiles, Napoleon could not make a vigorous attack upon the left wing (a task which was assigned to Marmont) until afternoon, while his left wing was engaged with the enemy's right, from 8 o'clock in the morning, in a constant, yet indocusive action. The position of Blücher's centre defied every attack. Marmont, after a bloody struggle, succeeded, at length, in forcing the Prussian left wing back towards Laon, and, at the approach of night, made himself master of the village of Athies, where he remained, expecting the battle to be decided on the following day. But at seven o'clock in the evening, general Yorek, with Kleist, prince William of Prussia, and the cavalry under general Ziethen, surprised the yillage of Athics While Ziethen, with the cavalry, fell upon the enemy's flank, he was so vigorously seconded by an attack with the bayonet in front, that the French, assaulted at the same time in the rear and on both wings, were driven out of the village after a short resistance, and totally routed. They lost 46 cannon and more than 2500 prisoners.

The corps of Marmont, and the cavalry under Arrighi, were almost entirely dispersed or annihilated. In spite of this misfortune, Napoleon, instead of immediately making his retreat, with inconceivable obstinacy fell upon Blücher's right wing and centre, early on the morning of the 10th, but, in the evening, after having suffered a great loss, was compelled to meditate a retreat, which he effected on of the victory obtained in the night of the 9th, Napoleon would have been totally defeated. But he followed him slowly, and remained upon the right bank of the Aisne until the 18th of March. Meanwhile, Rheims, which had but a feeble garrison, was taken by assault, on the 12th of March. by a Russian corps of 15,000 men under general count St. Priest, united with the division of the Pryssian general Jagow, who had advanced from the Ardennes through Vitry. Napoleon, however, immediately retook that city, and thus secured his route toward the Aube, for an intended attack upon Schwarzenberg, who, as soon as he had received the news of Blucher's victory at Laon, had set his columns in motion on the 14th, along the right banks of the Seine and Adbe, in the direction of Arcis. (See the third section of the History of the Campaign of 1814, under the article Paris, Occupation of, in the year 1814.)—While Napoleon indulged the hope of being able to annihilate the Silesian army on the Aisne, the negotiations at Lusigny were broken off, March 5, without having produced any result; and those at Chatillon were entirely at a stand, because Napoleon thought the derounds of the allies too great. The allies 'finally fixed upon the 10th of March as the ultimate term, within which Napoleon should either accept of their propositions, or should submit to them his own. He presented, however, through Caulaincourt. only some detached articles, which could have had no effect but to prolong the negotiations. A further term of five days was therefore granted, at the expiration of which, on the 15th of March, and, consequently, after the battle at Laon, Caulaincourt offered his preliminaries, in which Napoleon demanded, 1. Italy. with Venice, as a kingdom for prince Eugene Beauharnais and his heirs; 2 the Netherlands, with the Scheldt and the city of Nimeguen. Holland he would resign. The left bank of the Rhine should continue in the hands of France. Joseph should receive a proper indenmification

for Spain, as well as Jerome for Westphaha, Eugene for Frankfort, and Napoleon's nephew Louis for the grand-duchy of Berg. Even Elisa, Talleyrand and Berthier were to receive proper indemnifications. But even these demands were not sincerely proposed by the emperor. He still entertained the hope that success The duke would enable him to retract. of Bassano wrote to Caulaincourt, March 19, immediately before the action at Arcissur-Aube (see Paris, Occupation of), stuting that the emperor intended, even after the ratification of the treaty, to be guided by the military situation of affairs, even to the last moment. (See Schöll's Traités de Paix, &c .- Treaties of Peace-vol. 10, p. 413.)—Bassano's letter had not fallen into the hands of the allies, when, in compliance with the treaty of Chaumont, they. broke off the negotiations at Chatillon, with the eighth conference, held March 18 and 19, and, in a declaration, issued at Vitry, March 25, consequently while they were marching upon Pans, proclaimed the reasons for that measure, and for the continuation of the war.\* The subsecontinuation of the war.\* quent course of the war is related in the article Paris, Occupation of, in the year 1814. See, also, Memoirs of the Operations of the Allied Armits in 1813 and 1814, London, Murray, 1822, an excellent and scientific work; Prokesch's Denkwurdig-keiten aus dem Leben des Feldmarschalls Schwarzenberg (Memoirs of the Life of the Field-Marshal Schwarzenberg), Vienna, 1823; Koch's Memoires pour servir à l'Histoire de la Campagne de 1814 (Memoirs intended to contribute to the History of the Campaign of 1814), Paris, 1819, 2 vols.; and the Beitrage zur Geschichte des Feldzugs in Frankreich in den Jahren 1814 und 1815, unter dem Commando des Kronprinzen v. Würtemberg, &c. (Contributions to the History of the

"Pons de l'Herault, in his pamphlet Congrés, de Châtulou (Paris, 1925), assegs, that Napoleon had been desirous, from the beginning of the congress, to obtain peace at any price, but that Caulamcourt, from too great arviety, had protracted the regoid ations contrary to his instructions; while the allnes, on the other hand, had done the same, because they were secretly informed of a conspiracy existing in Paris against Napoleon. According to this writer, Napoleon had authorized Caulameourt, on the 17th and 19th of March, to grant every thing necessary for a peace; but the bearer of these instructions, having been detained by the Austrian and Bussian troops, did not reach Caulamcourt till the 21st, 10 miles from Châtulon. Caulamcourt, by the command of Napoleon, wrote to prince Meternich, as late as the 25th of March, that he was authorized, by the emperor of Austria had gone to Dison, and the march upon Paris was already begun.

Campaign in France, in the Years 1814, and 1815, under the Command of the Crown-Prince of Würtemberg, published by the Würtemberg officers of the quarter-master-general's staff) Stuttgard; and the many memoirs of the Frenchmen at that time in the emperor's service. A valuable article, showing the anxious wish for peace entertained by all the French, particularly those who knew the tisposition of the people, and surrounded the regent-empress and king Joseph, appeared in the Courier des Etats-Unis of Jan. 31, 1829 (published in New York), consisting of a number of letters written by king Joseph to Napoleon, and the answers of the latter. There is no doubt of the authenticity of these letters.

CHATTERTON, Thomas, a youth whose genius, eccentricity and melancholy fate have gained him much celebrity, was born at Bristol, in 1752, of poor parents. He had not yet learned to read, when an old French musical work happened to fall into his hands, the characters of which excited his currosity. His mother now taught him to read from an old black-letter Bible. When 8 years old, he en-tered a charity school at Colston, where the workings of his genius lay concealed under the appearance of melancholy and incapacity. At about 10 years of age, he acquired a taste for reading, which be-Tame, from that period, a kind of ruling passion. His first work, a satire on a Methodist, who had abundoned his sect from interested motives, was written at the age of 123 years. From this time his taste was decided. His melancholy gave way to vivacity and vanity, and dreams of glory, fortune and immortality. He became particularly fond of antiquities and annous expressions. At the age of 14, he left school, and was articled as apprentice to a serivener, at Bristol. His father, who died before his birth, had accidentally obtained possession of a number of old parchments of the 15th century. Many of these were consumed in the fam ily; but several fell into the hands of Chat terton, who, after a few days, declared athat he had discovered a treasure. then procured glossaries of the old dialects of the country, and, in 1768, when the new bridge at Bristol was completed, he inserted a paper in the Bristol Journal, entitled A Description of the Friats' first Passing over the Old Bridge, taken from an ancient Manuscript. He was then but 16 years old. Upon being questioned as to the manner in which he had obtained it, he finally asserted, that he was in the

possession of several valuable old manu. best edition is that of 1803, in three vol. scripts, taken (as those above-mentioned umes. church. He had been engaged for a year in the composition of several poems, which he attributed to different ancient writers, particularly to one Rowley. In 1769, he ventured to write to Horace Walpole, giving him an account of his literary discoveries, and enclosing a specimen. Having received a polite answer, travelling, he studied law for some time: he wrote a second letter, informing Wal- but, becoming disgusted with this study, pole of his situation, and requesting assist- he repaired to court, where he became ance to enable him to follow his inclination for poetry. Walpole, however, who in the meantime had discovered the poems to be spurious, returned them to Chatterion without taking any further Discontented with his notice of him. situation; he obtained a release from his apprenticeship by threatening to put an end to his life, and went to London. The favorable reception, with which he there met from the booksellers, inspired him with new hopes. He wrote for several journals, on the side of the opposition. He indulged the hope of effecting a revolution, and used to boast that he was des- . He was gent ambassador to Genoa; on fined to restore the rights of the nation. Failing to procure the rewards which he had expected for his exertions in favor of this party, he observed, that "he must be a poor author who could not write on both sides." On this principle he acted; but prosperity did not attend his dereliction from principle. His situation duly became worse. Although extremely temperate, and often voluntarity confining himself to bread and water, he was frequently destitute even of these necessaries. What he gained by his labors he spent, partly in presents for his mother and sisters, to whom he always held out the most splendid expectations, partly in public places of amusement, which he continued to visit under the appearance of-easy circumstances. At last, after having been several days without food, he poisoned himself, in 1770, when not yet 18 years old. His works were more extensively read as the public became acquainted with the history of his misfortunes. The most remarkable are the poems published under the name of Rowley, which he composed at the age of 15 years. They display a vigorous and brilliant imagination, fertility of invention, and often a deep sensibility. Among the poems which he published under his own name, his satires deserve the preference. His prose writings are spirited. His works

CHAUCER, Geoffrey, born in London, in 1328, was the son of a merchant, or, according to some writers, of noble extrac-tion. He studied at Cambridge and Ox-ford. At the former place, he distinguished himself, at the age of 18, by his Court of Love, the oldest poem in English now Having improved himself by extant. yeoman to Edward III. He was in high favor with the king, and particularly with . his son, John of Gaunt, the celebrated duke of Lancaster. He was the confident of the prince's love to his cousin, the duchess Blanche, and made their love, their marriage, the charms and virtues of the duchess, the themes of his songs. The duchess, however, soon found a rival in lady Catharine Swynford, whose sister Chaucer married. This alliance established him more firmly in the favor of the duke, by whose influence he was appointed to the most honorable offices: which occasion he visited Petrarch. was also sent as envoy to Charles V of France, to negotiate the renewal of the truce, and a marriage between Richard, prince of Wales, and the king's daughter, in which mission, however, he was unsuccessful. As an adherent of the duke of Lancaster, he embraced the opinions of Wickliffe, and formed a close connexion with him; but neither business, nor the intrigues of the court, nor the theological controversies of the time, interrupted his poetical labors. His first poem was soon followed by Troilis and Cressida, the House of Fame, and other works, which were imitations of Boccaccio and other less celebrated authors. He seems particularly to have borrowed from the works of the Troubadours. These works bear the stamp of the corrupt taste, which, at that time, prevailed throughout Europe; but they are remarkable for correct delineation of character. He is considered as the inventor of English heroic verse. In 1382, the Wickliffites attempted, in spite of the opposition of the clergy, to elect a lord mayor of London of their own party." The disturbances, to which this dispute gave use, occasioned a severe persecution of that seet on the part of the court, and Chain er, who was hated by the people as the personal friend of Wickliffe, fled to Hainault, where he continued to receive have been several times published. The his salary. The faithlessness of his . agents, who discontinued their remit-tances, having obliged him to make a secret journey to England, he was dis-covered, arrested, and deprived of his post of comptroller of the customs, the duties of which had been discharged, in , his name, by his deputy. He finally obtained his liberty by disclosing the designs of the party with which he had been connected. This conduct drew upon him a load of obloquy, while, at the same time, he was suffering from poverty. During his distresses, he wrote his Testament of Love, a sort of imitation of Boethius's De Consolatione, which he had translated in his youth. Chaucer's situation was once more changed with that of the duke of Lancaster, who, in the hope of ascending the Spanish throne, had entered into a second marriage with the daughter of Peter the Cruel; and though he had returned from Spain, in 1389, without having gained this object, yet he brought back considerable sums, which he employed in reviving his party at court. Four years later, on the death of his second wife, the duke married Catharine Swynford. Chaucer, now nearly connected with the royal family, regained the favor of the court, and was restored to his office. After the duke's death, he seems to have lived in retirement at Donnington castle, where the oak, in the shade of which it was said he loved to muse, long bore his name. There he wrote his most celebrated work, the Canterbury Tules, in verse. They are distinguished for variety of character and incliness of description. Chancer is the first writer who introduced the spirit and fictions of chivalry into pactry. His Sir Topaz, however, is written in ridicule of these fictions. He died in the year 1400. His works have been often printed.

CHAUCI; an facient Tentonic tribe, dwelling east of the Frisians, between the Ems and Elbe, on the shore of the German ocean. They are also called, by different authors, Cauchi, Cauci, Cayer, Chaci. They are first mentioned in the wars of Drusus, who subjected them (Dio Cass. iv). Tacitus mentions them often.

CHAUDET, Antoine Denis, descree, perhaps, the first place among the French statuaries of modern times. Born at Paris, March 31, 1763, when the most corrupt taste in sculpture prevailed, he finished his career by works which display a degree of Grecian simplicity and truth which few modern artists have attained. In the 21st year of his age, he obtained the first prize of the academy. He then went to Rome, where he met the celebrated Drou-

ais. (q. v.) They were soon united by the ties of the most intimate friendship, and an equal enthusiasm for art. After his return to Puris, he became a member of the academy. His first work was a baserelief under the peristyle of the Pantheon, representing the love of glory. The bad laste of the period could not justly estimate the grand and simple character of this work: it was reserved for later times to appreciate the masterly and sublime performance. Travellers may find in the museums of Luxembourg and Trianon several of Chandet's finest works; among them, La Sensibilité, a young girl, astonished at the motion of the sensitive plant, which shrinks from her touch; the beautiful statue of Cyparissa, &c. Chaudet died at Paris, April 19, 1810.

CHAUDIFRE; a river of Lower Canada, which rises on the borders of Maine, near . the sources of the Kennebee, and, after a northerly course of about 120 miles, flows into the St. Lawrence, 6 miles above Quebec. The banks of the river are generally high, steep and rocky, and clothed with wood of indifferent growth. Three or four miles above its entrance into the St. Lawrence, the river has a remarkable cataract, of about 120 feet perpendicular. These falls are considered not inferior to those of Montmorenci; the perpendicular height is only about half as great, but the quantity of water is vastly greater, the width of the river at the cataract being 360 feet. In some parts, sheets of water toll over the precipice, and fall, scarcely, broken, to the bottom; while, in other places, the falling water dashes from one fragment of rock to another, with the wildest impetuosity, and forms a great mass of foam of a snow v whiteness

Chaupon, Louis Maieul, a learned Benedictine of the monastery of Cluny, which was secularized in 1787, born at Valen-solles, May 10th, 1737, wrote several works in defence of the Catholies, for which he received the thanks of the popes Clement XIII and Pius VI, in two briefs directed to him. Among his works must be mentioned the Nouveau Dictionnaire historique (Avignon, 1706, in 4 vols.), of which 10 editions have appeared, the 9th of which, in 1820, is less correct than the former ones. The 10th appeared at Paris in 1822, in 25 vols. Besides this, he wrote several other valuable works. He must not be confounded with his brother Marcul Chaudon, like himself a member of the academy of Arcadians in Rome, but belonging to the order of the Capuchins. The latter is the author of La Vie du,

tion, Paris, 1787).

CHAUFFEPIÉ, Jacques George de, a Calvinistie preacher, born at Lewarden, in Friedland, in 1702, preached at Flushing, Doift, and, in 1743, at Amsterdam, where he died in 1786. Besides several theological works, and translations from the English, he wrote a Nouveau Dictionnaire historique et critique, pour servir de Supplément ou de Continuation au Dictionnaire historique et critique de Bayle (Amsterdam and Hagne, 1750-56, 4 vols. fol.). This work is founded on an English translation of Bayle, in 10 vols., in which many additions had been made to the original. Of 1400 articles, which it contains, 600 are translated from the Enghelt without additions, about 280 are corrected and augmented, and the rest added by Chauffepié. He displays much learning, but, in genius and style, falls far below Bayle. Chauffepié also wrote the life of Pope.

CHAULIEU, Guillaume Andrye de, the French Anacreon, born at Fontenai in dakes of Vendôme, through whose undaence he was appointed abbot of Annale, and received, besides, several other benefices, so that his yearly income amounted to 30,000 livres. Pleasure was now the sole occupation of Chaulieu. He lived in the Temple, where many persons were assembled, who, like himself, united the love of pleasure with a taste for letters. In this society of Epicureans, though it was frequently visited by the grand prior of Vendome himself, decorum and morality were not very rigorously observed; but the pleasures of the table were heightened by poetical sallies. Chaulieu, a disciple of Chapelle and Bachaumont, distinguished hunself among the rest by the charms of his wit and the gayety of his disposition, and received the surname of the Inacreon of the Temple. Like Anacreon, he devoted himself to love and poctry to the last. In a letter to the marquis de Latare, he describes himself as vain, unpatient and impetuous, by turns active and indolent, fond of projects, and not less fond of repose. He died in his house in the Temple, in 1720, aged 81. La Harpe justly remarks, that his verses display the negligence of an indolent mind, but, at the same time, good taste, and are free from all affectation.

CHAUMONT (department of the Osso), TREATY OF, concluded March I, 1814. The former coalitions of Russia, Prussia, Great

hienheureus Laurent des Brindes (last edi- Britain, Sweden, Austria, and most of the German princes, against Napoleon, in 1813, were principally directed to the deliverance of Germany, and the dissolution of the confederation of the Rhine. principal object of the quadruple alliance. concluded at Chaumont between Austria, Russia, Great Britain and Prussia, was declared to be to destroy the preponderance of France, and to restore permanent peace to Europe, founded on the balance of power, and national independence. In case this end should not be attained by the negotiations already opened with Napoleon at Chatillon [q. v.), the mutual obligations already existing between the alhes to prosecute the war were to be contirmed. . The four parties to the treaty of Chaumont agreed on their respective contributions for the accomplishment of their object, which, being punctually fulfilled, led to the peace of Paris, in 1814. This trehty was signed by prince Metternich, count Nesselrode, lord Castlereagh, and the Prussian chancellor of state von Hardenberg. The treaty of Chaumont forms 1639, early distinguished himself by his an epoch in the history of Europe. It genius, and gained the esteem of the contains the diplomatic key to all the events which occupied the eyes of Eutope in 1815. As it was, however, directed personally against Napoleon, and as France joined the allies at the congress of Arx-la-Chapelle, in 1818, for the purpose of maintaining the peace of Europe, it has not been renewed.

CHAUNCY, Charles, D. D., minister in Boston, was the descendant of president, Channey of Harvard university, a distinguished scholar and divine, who came to America on account of his religious opinions, m 1638. Doctor Chauncy was born, in Boston, January 1, 1705, and, after being graduated at Harvard, in 1721, studied divinity, and was ordained pastor of the. that church in Boston, in 1727. Doctor Chathey was eminent for learning, independence, and attachment to the civil and refigious liberty of his country. He was easily excited, and was plain and pointed in his invectives, but was greatly esteemed for his honesty, sincerity and piety. He died February 10, 1787, in the 83d year of his.age. His productions are numerous, consisting of an extensive collection of sermons, a work-entitled of Complete View of Episcopacy, of which he was a decided enemy, and several polemical publications

CHAUSSÉE, Pierre Claude Nivelle de la ; a dramatic writer, born at Paris in 1692. His first work was a critique on the fables. of La Motte. When La Motte advanced

11

the paradox that verse is useless in the sion of the Jesuits from France. Frantragedy and ode, he was answered by cois Chauvelin, born about 1770, and edu-Chaussee, in his Epitre à Clio, which is cated in the military academy at Paris, still esteemed. His first dramatical work, La Fausse Antipathie, written after be had passed the age of 40, was received with approbation. The following circumstance gave rise to the new species of drama which he introduced. The actress Quintult, perceiving a good subject for an affecting drama in a farce, proposed it to Voltaire, who declined the attempt. She then applied to Chaussée, who, at her suggestion, wrote Le Prejugé à la Mode. Thus the sentimental comedy (comédie larmoyante) originated from the farce. Chan-see then attempted imgedy, and wrote the unsuccessful piece Maximien, a subject which had already been treated of by Th. Cerncille. His Ecole des Mères, and his Gouvernante, which followed, are still acted. He died in 1754. . Voltaire says he is one of the first writers, after those of genus.

CHAUVEAU-LAGARDY; one of the most celebrated orators of the French bar, at the time of the revolution; born at Chartres in 1767. He defended, at the peril of his life, and with a run closurance. the victims of the revolutionary tribunal. With Deseze, the hold and eloquent defender of Louis XVI, and Troncon-Docouldray, who, with him, conducted the defence of Marie Antonnette, he will be remembered as one of these who continge faithful to horse and then duty, weder all circumstances. Among the most celebrated of his unfortunate chems, b sides the queen, were Charlotte Corday and Brissor. His defence of Minanda saved the latter from the scalfold. In 1814, he received letters of nobilay from the king, and the cross of the legion of honor. In 1816, he published an account of the trial of the queen, and of that of the prince- Elizabeth.

Chauvelly, Crançois marques de: a distinguished member of the constitutional or left side in the chamber of deputies; descended from a celebrated French family, son of the mergins de Chauvela, who was licutenant-general, minister to Genoa and Parma, French amitassador to. Turin, and equally distinguished among his contemporaries for his amilable character, and his highly-cultivated mind. His uncle, also, the able Chauvelin, was equally eminent for his patrotism, his courage and intelligence, which were rewarded by lettres de cochet, and several years of arbitrary imprisonment. The able took an important part in the expul-

had been in the service but two years at the commencement of the revolution. He embraced its principles with all the ardor of early youth, and, in 1791, became first uide-de-camp of general, afterwards intrshal, Rochambeau, who was sent to or ganize the army of the north. Chauvelin displayed such extraordinary talents, that he was appointed, in 1792, on the proposal of Dumouriez, ambassador to England, at that time a post of the very highest miportunce. After the execution of Louis XVI, England broke off all diplomatic intercourse with France, and Chauveli. was sent to Florence, but was compelled to leave this city by the threat of lord Hervey, the English ambassador, who declared to the duke, that, if Chauvehn did not depart within 24 hours, he would forthwith have Leghorn bombarded. During the reign of terror, Chauvelin was thrown into prison, from which he was released by the 9th of Thermador. Inder the directory, he devoted hunself entirely to the senerces. After the 18th of Brumaire, he was appointed, by the senate, a member of the inbunate. With Benjamin Constant and several others, he ditinguished limiself by a firm but circum spect resistance to the encroachments of he consular power. Thus he opposed the establishment of the legion of honor He was, therefore, removed from the tribunate. His character and putraotism were, however, appreciated by Napoleon, who appointed him prefect of the department of the Lys. This post he held with honor during a space of eight years, after the lapse of which, in 1811, he was called into the connect of state, and atterwards sent into Catalonia as intendant-general After the restoration, he was elected a member of the chamber of deputies by the department of the  $C\delta t_{i}$ - $d^{\prime}Or$ . Prem that period, he has continued to rise in the estern of the nation, and has been repeatedly reelected. Chanvelin is not surpass ed by any prator in the chamber in brilhancy, ingenuity, rapidity of conception, presence of mind and liveliness of wit. In the salon he speaks like a Beaumatchais; from the tribune, like a Barnave or a Vergmand. In examining the trapertions of the chamber of deputies, we find him, in every debute, in the first runks; and even his feeble state of health could not prevent his attendance during the important session of 1820.

CHAUN DE FONDS. LA; the name of a

village in the district of Vallengen, in the Swiss canton of Neufebatel. The valley that hears this name is unfit for agriculture, but rich in cattle, and carries on much trade in cheese. It is remarkable, as is also the neighboring village of Lock, or its manufactures of watches and lace. La Chaux de Fonds has about 5600 inhabitants, among whom are upwards of 400 watch-makers, and 600 females that gain their living by making lace. About 40,000 gold and silver watches are annually made here, beside clocks. The village of Lock has about 5000 inhabitants. The village of Fleurier is the chief place for the trade in lace.

Chick; a draft or bill on a Making house, to be paid, at sight, to the beaver. (See Bill of Exchange, vol. 2, page 104.)

CHEKE, sir John: an emment English statesman and cultivator of classical litergrore in the 16th century. He was born at Cambridge in 1514, and received beeducation at St. John's college, in the university of that place. After having trava fled on the continent, he returned to Cambridge, and was made regais professer of Greek, in which office he distin- guished himself by introducing improvements in the pronunciation of that language. Bishop Gardiner, chancellor of the university sopposed there innovations, and a literary correspondence took place between the professor and the chancellor, which was, some time after, published at Basil, 8vo. In 1544, Cheke was appointed tutor to the prince of Wales, after-wards Edward VI, and he appears, likewise, to have assisted in the education of stre princess Llizabeth. On the accession of Edward, he received a pension of 100 narks, was made provost of King's college, Cambridge, and obtained grants of considerable landed property. He soon after married, and, in 1547, retired from ourt to the university, in consequence of some disappointment, but was soon recalled, and remained a great favorite with the king to the end of his reign. In 1550, he was made gentleman of the king's bedchamber, the next year he was knight- $\epsilon d$ , and, in 1553, he obtained the post of secretary of state. He was also a privy counsellor. The death of his royal patron occasioned a revolution in his fortunes. Cheke was a sincere Protestant, and was deeply involved in the measures adopted for the reformation of the church of England; and, having had the imprudence to engage in the scheme for raising lady Jane Grey to the crown, he was, on its failure, committed to the Tower. After

a few months, however, he was set at liherty, and, llaving obtained from queen Mary permission to travel, he went into Italy, and thence to Strasburg, in Germa-'. ny. His conduct while abroad gave oftence to the Catholic zealots in England, who procured the confiscation of his estate, on the pretext of his having exceeded the leave of absence which had been granted him. He was then obliged to support himself by giving lectures ion. the Greek language. In 1556, having been induced to visit Brussels (probably through the contrivance of his enemics), he was there arrested, by order of Philip . II, then sovereign of the Netherlands, and sent prisoner to England. Powerful means were adopted to convert him to popery. The fear of death prevailed over his constancy, and he was induced to make a public abjuration of his former faith. His estates were not restored, but he received an equivalent for them from the queen, and he was much caressed by the heads of the Catholic party, who, however, with cruel policy, obliged him to sit on the bench at the trials of the unfortunate. Protestants. It is a circum--tance honorable to his character, that he uppears to have keenly felt his degraded summan. He died of grief not long after, in S. ptember, 1557. Sir John Cheke published several small treatises, original and translated, chiefly relating to theology. -He was also the author of many works preserved in manuscript. Among these is an linglish translation of the gospel of St. Matthew, intended to exemplify his plan for the reformation of the English language, by bamshing from it all words . but such as are of Saxon origin.

CHEATA HOSPITAL. (See Hospital.) CHELTENHAM; a town of England, in Gloucester, on the Chett; 94 miles N. W.( London; Jon. 2° 4' W.; lat. 51° 54' N.; population, 13,236. It is celebrated for its medicinal waters and, within a few year-, has become a place of public resort, and was honored with the residence of the Foyal family in the year 1788. About 1000 persons, during the summer, visit The waters, which are used as a laxative and restorative to invalids. It has a weekly market on Thursday. The water of these springs has no briskness or pungency, but is brackish, rather bitter, and chalybeate. Its temperature is uniformly from 52° to 53' Fahr. The first effects of drinking these waters are some drowsness, and sometimes headache, which ceases. however, even previously to the bowels being opened. A moderate dose acts

promptly and decisively on the prime'vic., without, however, producing any griping, or leaving languor or faintness after its

operation.

CHEMICAL AFFINITY. (See Chemistry.) CHEMISTRY. By this name, the ctymology of which is uncertain, we understand, \* the science which teaches the nature of bodies, or rather the mutual agencies of the : elements of which they are composed, with a view to determine the nature, proportions and mode of combination of these elements in all bodies. Natural philosophy, or physics, examines the reciprocal influence of , matter in masses. Chemistry treats of the mutual action of the integrant parts. In the former, the phenomena are produced by the general attraction or repulsion of bodies; in the latter, by minute combina-tion or decomposition. With our present knowledge of matter and its laws, we cannot separate physics entirely from chemsary; one science cannot be studied without the other. Those artisans who first discovered the means of melting, combinmg and moulding the metals; those physicions who first extracted vegetable substances from plants, and observed their properties, were the first chemists. stead, however, of observing a philosophscal method in their examinations; instead of passing from what was known to what was unknown, early inquirers suffered themselves to be led astray by astrological dreams, the fables of the philosopher's stone, and a hundred other aboutdures. (See Alchemy.) Intil the year 1650, we find little worthy of notice in the history of chemistry. Rhazis, Roger Bacon, Araand de Villeneuve, Basilius Valentin, Paracelsus, Agracola, &c., observed some of the properties of iron, quick-ilstr, antimony, ammoniae, saltpetre. They discovered sulphuric, entric and other acids: the mode of rectifying spirits, preparing opium, jalap, &c., and of purifying the alkalies. Glauber was distinguished for the accuracy of his observations. He endeavored to improve certain instrumentadvised operators not to throw away any residuum, in performing experiments, as aseless; discovered the salt which is called, from him, Glauber's salt, &c. Such isolated discoveries, however, could not form a complete sciency. Stahl appeared, and, although his theory was unsatisfactory and entirely gratuitous, and, as later observation- have proved, erroneous, yet he laid the foundations of a regular science. He was himself much indebted to the celebrated Becher, whose views he corrected and extended. He was sensible that the

greater part of chemical phenomena might depend on a general cause, or, at least, on a few general principles, to which all combinations must necessarily be referred. He supposed that hodies contained a combustible element, which inflammable bodies lost by being burned, and which they could regain from other more inflammable bodies. This element he called phlogiston. The establishing of a hypothesis, which connected almost all phenomena with each other, was an important step. Roerhanve adopted Stahl's system, and contributed much to its general diffusion. He is the founder of philosophical chemistry, which he enriched with numerous experiments in regard to fire, the caloric of light, &c. Although the principles on which those philosophers proceeded were false, yet the science was much advanced by their labors. It was reserved for Black, Priestley, Cavendish and Lavoisier to overturn Stahl's system, and substitute the pneumatic or antiphlogistic chemistry, the best history of which is to be found in Foureroy's Philosophic Chimique, and his: · Système des Connaissances Chimiques. As soon as the composition of the atmospheric air was known, it was observed that combustible bodies, burning in contact with it, instead of losing one of their elements, absorbed one of the component parts of the air, and were thus increased in weight. This component part has recerved the name of oxygen, because many of the combustible bodies are changed by its absorption into acids. Oxygen now took the place of philogiston, and explained the difficulties which beset the phlogistic theory. Light and unity were introduced into chemistry by the new technical nomenclasure adopted in 1787, by the aid of which all the individual facts are easily retuned in the memory, since the name of each body is expressive either of its composition or of its characteristic property 12 or 15 terms have been found sufficient for creating a methodical language, in which there is no inexpressive term, and which, by changing the final syllables of certain names, indicates the change which takes place in the composition of the bodies. Lavoisier, Foureroy, Guyton de Morveau and Berthollet were the authors of this felicitous unovation. The chemical terminology admits of nothing arbitrary, and is adapted not only to express known phenomena, but also any which may be hereafter discovered. It is the first example of a systematic and analytic language. The commencement of the 19th cen-

of chemistry. The galvanic apparatus of Volta presented to the experimenter an agent unequalled in the variety, extent and energy of its action upon com-mon matter. With this apparatus, sir Humphrey Davy commended a series of nescarches, which resulted in a greater modification of the science than it had ever before experienced. He proved that the fixed alkalies were compounds of oxygen with metallic bases, and thus led the way, to the discovery of an analogous constitution in · the alkaline carries. To the same individual the science is principally indebted for the e-tablishment of the simple nature of chlorine, and for the investigation of iodine. His researches concerning the nature of . Same, resulting as they did in the invennon of the nuner's safety-lamp, afforded to mankind a new demonstration of the utilty of philosophy in contributing to the improvement of the arts of life.—But that department of chemistry, which has of are been most successfully investigated, relates to the definite proportions in which podies unite to form the various chemical compounds. To establish the conclusions? which have been arrived at, a multitude of vact analyses were requisite. These were accomplished principally through the la-nors of Vauquelin, Gay-Lussac, Themaid, Berzelius and Thompson; and have teramated in the establishment of the genral truth, that, when bodies combine · he injeally and intimately with each other, to y combine in determinate quantities; and that when one body unites with another in more than one proportion, the cano of the increase may be expressed of some simple multiple of the first proportion. I pon this general fact, doctor Wollaston conspireted the logametric scale of chemical equivalents—an invention which has contributed, in an enument dearee, to render our knowledge of the consulution of compounds precise, by introbeing the sure basis of arithmetical relations, which, when fixed with accuracy, are not susceptible of change. The doc-'one of definite proportions may, therefore, be regarded as having communicated to the principles of chemistry that certainty which has long been considered as peculsar to the mathematical sciences; and it a in the developement of these important relations that the advancement of the science has been most conspictions.—Among

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oury forms a brilliant era in the progress vgen and hydrogen; the researches of Faraday, in which many of the gases have been reduced to the liquid form; the discovery of new compounds of carbon and hydrogen, and the singular fact, which they exhibit, of different combinations being established in the same proportions, the elucidation of the new compounds of chlorine with carbon; of the peroxide of chlorine; the hydriodide of carbon; the perchloric, jodous, fulminic, and other acids; the discovery of the real bases of silex and zircon, and that of the new principle, brome: add to these, that our knowledge of light and electricity has been greatly enlarged, and that the phenomena of electro-magnetism are altogether new, and it becomes strikingly obvious that chemistry is still a progressive science. "Nor can any limits be placed to the extent of its investigations. Its analysis is indefinite; its termination will have been attained only when the real elements of bodies shall have been detected, and all their modifications traced: but how remote this may be from its present state we cannot judge. Nor can we, from our pre~nt knowledge, form any just conception of the stages of discovery through which it has yet to pass.

Chemistry has two ways of becoming acquainted with the internal structure of bodies, analysis and synthesis (de omposition and combination). By the former, it separates the component parts of a compound body: by the latter, it combines the separated elements, so as to form anew the decomposed body, and to prove the correctness of the former process. methods depend on a complete knowledge : of the two powers, by which all bodies in nature are set in motion, viz., attraction and repulsion. Attempts have been made to distinguish the attraction of elementary particles from planetary attraction; the former being designated as chemical affinity: but nature has only one kind of attrac-The alternate play of attraction and repulsion produces a great number of senable phenomena, and a multitude of combinations, which change the nature and The study of the properties of bodies these phenomena, and the knowledge of these combinations, appertun to the department of chemistry. The history of a body must always precede its analysis. The mere examination of its form, its color, its weight, and the place where it the still more recent improvements in comparison, to lead to a knowledge the still more recent improvements in comparison, to lead to a knowledge the still more recent improvements in comparison, to lead to a knowledge the still more extensive than chemistry, nor is it is a still more extensive than chemistry, nor is it raim in effecting the combination of ox- preschie for one person to embrace it in its

To facilitate the study, it whole extent. · in considered in different points of view, and thrown into divisions and subdivisions, : so that a person may devote himself to one department of it, although the method. of observing, analyzing and combining is the same in all, and although all the phe- nomens must be explained by the general theory, and refer to certain laws, of which a previous knowledge is requisite. These laws constitute what is called philosophical chemistry, which explains what is meant by the affinity of aggregation or cohesion, and by the affinity of composition, or chemical affinity. It treats of the phenomena of solution, saturation, crystallization, ebullimon, fusion, neutralization. 'Chemical processes, by changing or modifying the properties of bodies, suggest to the observer important considerations on the changes of form, density and temper-Philosophical chemistry weighs these considerations. It shows, further, that affinity may be exerted, 1. between two simple bodies; 2. between a simple and a compound one; 3, between compound bodies; and, establishing the principle, that the same body has not the same affinity for all others, but attracts them , unequally: it shows us the laws which determine this preference, and the circumstances which modify it: such as cohesion, mass, insolubility, clasticity and temperature. It measures the degree of affinity, whether of simple or compound bodies. It observes the circumstances which aid or obstruct the play of attraction, and shows that two bodies will not act upon each other, unless one of them, at least, in a fluid state: that bodies, even in a state of solution, act upon each other only at imperceptible distances; that two bodies, which have no perceptible affinity, may be made to combine by the interposition. of a third: and, finally, that the peculiar properties of bodies are destroyed by their combination, and the compound possesses entirely new properties. Proceeding from these principles to the examination of bodies themselves, philosophical chemistry considers the effects of light, heat and electricity; the nature of the sample and compound inflammable bodies; of air and water; the composition and decomposition of acids; the nature, and properties of the salts; their relations to the acids; the calcination, solution and alloying of metals; the composition and nature of plants; the characteristics of the immediate elements of vegetable substances; the phenomena of animalization; the properties of animal compounds, and the decay of organic

substances. This is the sphere of philosophical chemistry, while it confines itself to general views.—According to the application of these general views, chemistry is divided into seven or eight branches, which we have yet briefly to survey. The study of the great phenomena which are observed in the atmosphere, and which are called meteors, constitutes meteorological chemistry. This explains the formation of the clouds, rain, mist, snow, waterspouts; the state of the atmosphere in relation to the hygrometer, harometer and thermometer; the nature of the surora \*bercals, meteoric stones; in short, all the chemical processes going on above the surfact of the earth. Geological chemistry treats principally of the great combinations of nature, which produce volcanoes, your of metals, beds of mineral coal, basalt, mineral waters, the enormous masses of salt and hme, the saltpetre in the bed of the Indus, the natron of the dakes of Egypt, the borax of the lakes of Thibet. The geological chemist endeavors to discover and explain the causes of deluges, earthquakes, the decrease of the waters on the globe, the influence of chinate on the color of annuals and plants, on the smell of flowers, and the taste of fruits. In these general views. he needs the aid of natural philosophy and physics. Chemistry, in its application to natural history, is divided in the same There is a chemistry of the manner. nnneral kingdom, which comprises metallurgy and awaying, and the examination of all morganic substances, as stones, salts, metals, bitureen, waters; a chemistry of the vegetable kingdom, which analyzes plants and their immediate products; and a chemistry of the minual kingdom, which studies all substances derived from hving or dead animals. This last is subdivided into physiological chemistry, which considers the changes produced in animal substances by the operation of life; pathological chemistry, which traces the changes produced by disease or organic defects; therapeutic or pharmaceutic chemistry, which teaches the nature and preparation of medicines, shows the means of preserving them, and exposes the pretensions of empirics; hygietic chemistry. which acquaints us with the means of constructing and arranging our habitations, so as to render them healthy, of examining the air which we must breathe in them, guarding against contagious diseases, choosing wholesome food, discovering the influence of occupation, fashion and custom on the health. Agricultural chemistry

treats of the nature of plants and soils, and are called supporters of combustion, because the laws of production. Sir Humphrey ence.. It treats, 1. of the general powers of matter which have any influence on vegetation, of gravity, cohesion, chemical affinity, heat, light, electricity, the elements of matter, especially such as are found in vegetables, and the laws of their composition and arrangement; 2. of the organization of plants, their structure, the chemical composition of their organs, and the substances found in them, &c.; 3. of soils; 4. of the nature of manure.—('hemistry, finally, exerts an influence on the routine of domestic life, and on the arts. It simplifies and regulates the daily offices of the housekeeper; renders our dwellings healthy, warm, light; assists us in prepaiing clothing, food, drink, &c.: it teaches the best way of making bread; preparing and purifying oils; of constructing bakeoouses, ovens and hearths; of bleaching and washing all kinds of stuff; of producing artificial cold, &c. The application of chemistry to the arts and manufactures is, however, still more important and extensive. Here its aim is to discover, improve, extend, perfect and simplify the processes by which the objects to be prepared may be adapted to our wants. We close our remarks with the observation, that a knowledge of chemistry may frequently be useful in judicial proceedings, in exposing crime; e.g., in cases of poisoning, counterfeiting coms and written documents, &c.

Chemical Classification and Nomencla-The chemist finds a small number of bodies, from which only one kind of matter can be obtained, in the present state of his knowledge, and by the instruments and agents which he now has at his disposal. On the other hand, there is a large number of bodies, from which he obtains several kinds of matter. The former he calls elements, or simple bodies; the latter, compound bodies. The number of simple bodies now known is 53; that of the compounds is much greater, and might, at first, appear to be infinite, since not only a difference of elements, but even a difference of the proportions in which they are combined, makes an essential difference in the properties of the compound. It is, however, much less than would be supposed, and even less than the number of possible combinations of simple bodies. Twelve of the simple bodies are oxygen, iodine, chlorine, bromine, fluorine, hydrogen, boron, carbon, phosphorus, sulphur, azote and selenium; and 41 are metals. (q. v.) The five first

the laws of production. Sir Humphrey they combine with the others, producing Davy first gave it the character of a sci- a disengagement of heat and light, and acidifying principles, because they are also capable of producing acids by a similar combination. The 48 others are called simple combustibles, because their union with the supporters of combustion, abovementioned, is a real combustion. pound bodies, as has been observed, are not so numerous as might be supposed. They result, 1. from the combination of oxygen, or one of the other simple supporters of combustion, with one of the simple combustibles; such are the acids: 2. from that of a simple body combined with oxygen, with another similar compound; such are the salts: 3. from that of two, three, rarely four, simple com- . . bustibles with one another: 4. from that of oxygen with hydrogen and carbon, forming vegetable matter: 5. from that of oxygen with hydrogen, carbon and azote, forming animal matter. Combustibles combined with the simple supporters of combustion are sometimes called burned bodies; from the number of their elements, they are also called binary compounds. When their taste is acid, and they have the property of reddening vegetable blues, they are termed acids. If they are not acid to the taste, and have the preperty of turning blue what has been reddened by acids, they are distinguished by the termination ide, as oxide, chloride, &c. If only one of the latter class is formed, that is, if the supporter of combustion will unite with the combustible in only one proportion, we call this compound sumply the oxide, chloride, & c., of the combustibles; . as, oride of carbon. If they unite in several proportions, we call the first, or that which contains the smallest proportion of oxygen, &c., protoride &c.; the second, theitovide; the third, tritoride. The highest is also called peroxide. So, if only one acid is formed, we designate it by the name of the combustible, with the termipation ic. Thus carbon with oxygen forms carbonic need. If several are formed, that which contains the larger proportion of the acidifying principle is designated by the termination ic, and that which contains less, by the termination ous. Thus sulphur forms sulphuric and anti sulphurous acid. If there are still intermediate compounds, we names hypo (signifying less), to designate a lower degree of acidity. Thus we should have sulphuric, hyposulphuric; sulphurous, hyposulphurous. the acids and oxides, chlorides, &c. combustible is called the base. W When

the base is the same, the peroxide, &c., always contains less oxygen, &c., that the lowest acid. For the names of compounds of two binary burnt bodies, no rules have been adopted to express the union of two oxides, two acids, or an acid with a nonmetallic oxide. But those formed of, acids and metallic oxides are called salts, and their individual names are formed by .changing the termination of the acid and placing it before the name of the metal; the termination ous is changed into ite, and ic into ate; sulphurous and with the oxide of tin would form sulphite of tin: sulphuric acid and tin, sulphate of lin. If the same acid combines with more than one oxide of the same metal, then we prefix the characteristic of the oxide to the name of the acid; thus sulphuric acid combined with the protoxide of iron, forms the protosulphate, with the peroxide, the persulphate, of iron. Other substances have also the property of unitmg with acids, neutralizing them, and forming compounds analogous to salts. There are no general rules for the names of these compounds; but the substances themselves are called salifiable bases. The rules of nomenclature, in regard to the combination of the combustibles, vary:-1. If the constituents are metals, they form alloys. 2. If the compounds are solid or liquid, and formed of a metallic and a non-nigtable combustible, we give to the latter the termination urci; as, cartion with iron forms carburet of iron. If both are non-metallic, the termination uret may be attached to eather; as, phosphuret of sidphur, or sidphuret of phosphorus. 3, If the compound is gaseous, we name the gas, or one of the gases, if it is composed of two, and join the other component as an adjective; us, phosphureted hydrogen.

CHENNITZ, the principal manufacturing town in the kingdom of Saxony, in the department of the Erzgeburge, on the river Chemnitz, r- well built, and contains 1000 houses, with 16,000 inhabitants, #.amongst whom are 1197 master-weavers. and 500 journeymen and apprentices. . The principal manufactures are white and printed calicoes, ginghame, handkerchiefs, and various articles used for bed-quilts. Of 12 cotton factories, founded about the · middle of the last century, several employ from 300 to 500 workmen. 40 spranningmills, in the town and its environs, manufacture upwards of 1,000,000 pounds of varn annually. The manufacture of cottoff home has been brought to very great perfection, and they are exported in large

quantities to the U. States and South!
America, besides furnishing most of the European markets, through the fairs of Leipsic, Frankfort and Brunswick. Within a few years, they have even been sent to England, strange as this may sound. They are manufactured in the neighboring villages.

CHEMNITZ, Martin, a distinguished Protestant theologian of the 16th century, rose, by his extraordinary talents and profound knowledge, from low circumstances to a high degree of celebrity. He was born at Treuenbrietzen, in the Mark of Brundenburg, Nov. 9, 1522, of poor parents; received his education at Magde-, burg and Frankfort on the Oder, and, m 1511, became a schoolmaster in Writzen on the Oder, to obtain the means of continuing his studies at Wattenberg. the advice of Melancthon, he applied bimself to mathematics and astrology. In 1550, he became bbraman of duke Albert ! of Pressia. He then wrote his Loci theologici (edit. Polycarp, Leyser, Frankfort on the Maine, 1591, fol.), a valuable com-mentary on Melancthon's system of dog-matics. Being myited to Brunswick, as minister, he attacked the Jesuits in his Theologia Jesuitarum pracipua Capitu, (Leipsic, 1562), and, when the council of Trent thought uself assailed in this work, he wrote his Examen Concilii Tridentini (nest edit. 1707, fol., Frankfort on the Mame), a work of great historical value. He adhered to Luther's doctrine concerning the eucharist, wrote, on this subject, composed the Corpus Doctring prutenica for the Lutherans, and gradually became so implicitly attached to the Lutheran doctrire, that his efforts in support of a contributed to check the progress of theological science. He died, April 8, 1586, at Brunswick. He was the author of a great number of works besides those already mentioned.—His grandson, Philip Bogislay von Chemmiz, born in 1665, a soldier in the Swedish service, wrote the celebrated work, De Ratione Status in Imperio nostro Romano-Germanico, & c. auct. Hippolito a Lapide (1640, 4to., and 1617, 12mo.), which did more injury to the interests of the emperor than the loss of many battles. He then became Swedish historiographer, and wrote a history of the Swedish and German war (1648 and 1653). He died at his estate near Hallstodt, in Sweden, in 1678.

CHEVER, Marie Joseph de, born, Aug-28, 1764, in Constantinople (where his father, Louis Chénier, known as the author of valuable works on the Moor-,

consul-general), went, when very young, to Paris, served as an officer of dragoons. left the service, and devoted himself to literary pursuits in Paris. After an interval of three years, he published his Charles IX, which may be considered as a monument of the taste prevailing in France at the beginning of the revolution. Chéand is not without poetical merit. nier, by flattering the passions of the people, soon gained great popularity. His Henri VIII, La Mort de Calas, and Caius Gracchus, were received with great applause. He was chosen a member of the convention, where, for a considerable time, he belonged to the party of the most violent democrats. This spirit appears even in his Fenelon and Timoleon, published in 1793 and 1794. In the last years of his life, he was engaged in preparing a history of French literature. His discourses at the Athenaum, in Paris, in 4806 and 1807, contain the history of the French language, and of the different departments of poetry and prose, down to the times of Francis I. In an introduction, published in 1806, he explained the plan of the work, together with the principal results of his researches. (See his Fragmens du Cours de Littérature, fail à l'Athènee en 1806 et 1807, &c., Paris, 4808.) Chemer also treated of the characteristic features of the principal works in French literature, from 1788 to 1808, in lus Tableau historique de l'État et des Progrès de la Litterature Francaise depuis 1789. In his last piece on the decennal prizes, he maintained that the prize promsed for the best didactic work was due to one of his former enemies. His criticism on La Harpe's Lycce is the most correct

of that work. He died Jan. 11, 1811. CHEQUERS. (See Draughts.)

and impartial view which has been given

CHERBURG, OF CHERBOURG: a scaport of France, on the Channel, in the department of La Manche (the Channel); 16 leagues N. St. Lo. 34 W. N. W. Paris: lon. 1° 37′ 3″ W.; lat. 49° 38′ 30″ N; population, 15,600. It has a commercial court, an exchange, a school of navigation and a learned society. It is situated at the bottom of a large bay, between cape Barfleur and cape Lie Hogue. The building of small vessels and the manufacture of woollen stuffs form the principal employment of the inhabitants. This port has always been considered, by the French, as an object of great importance in the navigation of the English channel, and immense sums have been expended

Morocco and the Ottoman empire, was in the erection of piers, deepening and enlarging the harbor, and erecting fortifications. After the peace of 1783, the French government determined to make Cherburg a great haval depôt, and in different attempts, before 1808, expended more than £2,000,000 in constructing a vast bulwark to break the water, rendering the road a safe anchorage. Afterwards, under Napoleon, a basin was formed, 1000 feet long and 770 wide, occupying 18 acres, having a depth of 50 feet, and capable of containing 50 sail of In addition to this, a wet the line. dock has been constructed of equal dimensions. The cost of the basin and dock was nearly £5,000,000, without the expense of improving the roads. The mud, however, already begins to accumulate in the basin. The current, if the tide sets in, is so strong, that sometimes 10 or 12 cables are necessary to hold a vessel. Napolcon's views respecting Cherburg, as given in count Las Cases' Journal, are very interesting.

> CHERIBON; a principality of Java, on the N. coast; lat. 6° 46' S.; lon. 108° 35' E. It is divided anto 9 districts, and contains. about 90,000 inhabitants, besides strangers. This country is divided between two princes, both of whom are feudatories of the Dutch East India company. productions are coffee, timber, cotton yarn. areca, indigo, sugar, and also a little pepper: this last article formerly grew here in such abundance, that, in the year 1680, the bhar, of 375 pounds, was paid for at the rate of no more than 10 Spanish dollars. The rhinoceros is seen on the hills and in the forests in this district. The horses are small and well made, but vicious.

Cheriboli, Sheribon, or Tcheribon; a town in Java, capital of the principality of the same name, 170 miles M. Batavia. It is situated at the bottom of a deep bay, and was formerly a station of some importance. 25,000 inhabitants.

Cheribon Reef; a reef in the East Indian sea, near the north coast of Java; lat. 6° 9 S. lon. 108° 34' E.

CHEROKLES, OF TSULLAREES, the more proper name. (See Indians.) The name Cherokee is now perfectly settled (it is used, in fact, by the Indians themselves); but the condition of this tribe is of so interesting a character, that we have thought proper to defer our account of them to a place where we may be able to give the reader something more satisfactory than would now be in our power, particularly in respect to the subject of their political relations to the U. States and the state of Georgia,

which have already occasioned much discustion, and are likely to remain some time longer in controversy.

CHERONEA. (See Charonica.)

The cherry is a fruit of the CHERRY. prune or plum tribe, the original stock of which is the wild cherry (prunus cerasus). The gradual effect of cultivation on the cherry has been the production of several kinds, which, both in size and flavor, greatly exceed the fruit of the parent stock. The kinds that are best known are the eMay-duke, white-heart and black-heart cherries.—The trees are propagated by grafting them usually upon the stocks of wild black and red cherry-trees, which are reared for that purpose. This agreeable fruit it eaten fresh or dried. It is sometimes preserved with sugar as a sweet-meat, made into jam, used in the preparation of the liquor called cherry-brandy, and made into wine. From wild black cherries the Swiss distil an ardent spirit, by the sale of which to the French and Germans, they derive considerable profit.-The wood of the cherry-tree, which is hard and tough, is much used, particularly by turners and cabinet-makers, in many places, for the manufacture of chairs and other furniture. The gum that exudes from the bark is, in many respects, equal to gum arabic, and is considered very nutritive. that, during a siege, more than 100 men were kept alive for nearly two montus. without any other sustenance than a little of this gum, which they occasionally took into their mouths, and suffered gradually to dissolve.

CHERRY-LAURFL. The cherry-laurel (prunus lauro-cerasus) is remarkable only as producing the celebrated laurel-water. This is a most powerful poison, the strength of which (like that of peachkernels, bitter almonds, cherry-leaves. &c ) depends upon the presence of pressic acid, now so well known. Laurel-water is obtained from the leaves and flowers, or the leaves only, of this plant, by distillation, and was formerly much used, and tiruch dreaded, as a poison. Of late years, The German it has gone out of use. kirschwässer is a strong spirit, possessing the same properties, in a less degree, as do noyau, and other similar cordials, which should all be used with great caution.

CHERSON, capital of the Russian govexament of Cherson, on the Duieper, about 60 miles from its mouth, formerly the chief naval station on the Black sea, founded in 1778, is well fortified, and

contains about 2000 houses, partly of stone. with 20,000 inhabitants. The city consists. of four parts:-1. the fortress, with a church, a mint, an arsenal and a bannonfoundery; 2. the naval office, with extensive naval magazines and dock-yards; 3. the Grecian suburb, with a large warehouse; and, 4. the suburb for soldiers. The naval office has been transferred to Nikolajov (at the confluence of the Ingul with the Bug), founded in 1789, the situation of which is more convenient and: healthy. The harbor is annually entered by 400 Greek boats, besides several Austrian and French vessels. Wherever large rivers have but a slight descent towards their mouths, a great quantity of mud accumulates, which renders the bed gradually shallower, and, finally, rises above the surface of the water, forming morasses and islands, which leave a narrower bed for the stream. Such an accumulation takes place more rapidly, if two rivers of considerable size, like the Dineper and Bug, empty into the same bay. A deep hed should, therefore, be dug and embanked for the united rivers, which will be kept free by the action of the current, at least for some time. This was overlooked by Potenkin, when he formed the plan of this city; and large vessels are, therefore, obliged to discharge part of their car-Hassolquist informs us, goes in the harbor of Oczakow, which has 17 feet of water; and those which are outward bound complete their cargoes there. In 1823, however, the bed of the Ingul, which discharges its waters into the Black sea, was deepened to 184 feet, so that, in 1826, a ship of 110 guns could be launched at Nikolajev. The province of Cherson or Nikolajev (containing 25,500 square unles, and 371,000 inhabitants) is a dry heath, rising gradually towards the south, containing rich meadows here and there, and, along the rivers, about 18 limens, or marshy lakes. The soil along the shores is every where impregnated with iron and produces salt plants in abundance. It is, therefore, suitable for raising sheep. chmate, in summer, is hot; in winter, cold, The mulberry-tree, which loves a soil mipregnated with salt, thrives here luxuriantly; but the inhabitants do not turn it to advantage by the cultivation of silkworms: agriculture is yet in its infancy here. In 1787, the emperor Joseph and the empress Catharine II met at Cherson, and, amid the splendid festivities of that occasion, formed an alliance against the Porte. The tomb of Potemkin is in the city, and that of Howard a few niles from it. The cities of Odessa and Oczakow,

and the ruins of Olbia, at the mouth of the Bug, are in the government of Cherson.

Cherronesus (Greek; a poninsula). This mange has been given to several peninsulas; as, 1, the Cimbrian chersonesus (cherronesus Cimbrica), now Jutland, &c. (see Cimbri); 2, the Taurian chersonesus (ch. Taurica, also called Magna), the peninsula formed by the Black sea and the sea of Azof—the Crimea; 3, the Thracian chersonesus (ch. Thracica, or merely Chersonesus), the great peninsula in Thrace, now the peninsula of the Dardanelles.

CHERUB, in the Scriptures; an angel of the second choir of the first Inerarchy, Cherubim is the Hebrew plural of chorub, as scraphim is of scraph. The former signifies, as children; the latter, as flames of fire. The chirch has assigned to them their rank in the heavenly hosts. Painters and sculptors commonly represent the cherubim by a child's head, between wings. Raphael's paintings are beautifully adorned with these lovely creations of

faucy.

Chekt hist, Luigi, born at Florence, in 1760, a disciple of Sarti, at the age of 18 composed un opera, Adriano en Siria, at Leghorn, which was, however, too learned for the connorseurs of that city. He was better understood at Mantua and Tu-At the former place, in 1784, his secend opera, Alessandro nell' Indie, and, at the latter, in 1788, his Ifigenia in Aulide. were received with universal applause. He was then invited to Paris, where he attracted attention by his operas Demophoon, Lodoiska, Medea, & c. But the triumph of his genius was the celebrated opera Les deux Journées, which is a masterpiece of musical composition. The merals of Cherubim are enhanced by his singular modesty, in which he resembles the great Mozart, whose sublime genius he reveres. He is one of the five superintendents of the conservatoire in Paris. In 1805, he was invited to Vienna, to compose an opera for the imperial theatre. There he produced his Funiska, which was represented with the greatest applause in 1806, and displays great depth of feeling and power of awakening emotion. He has composed much since his return to Paris. In 1821 appeared his Blanche de Provence ou la Cour des Fres, in three acts, in which he was assisted by Berton, Buieldieu, Kreutzer and Paer.

CHERUSCI; the most celebrated German tribe among the Ista-vones. They inhabited both sides of the Hartz mountains, between the south-western part of the Thu-

ringian forest, where the Catti were their neighbors, and the Saale. Drusus, on his retreat from the Saale to the Rhine, passed through the southern part of their country. But, in advancing from the territory of Paderborn, over the Weser, towards the Elbe, he took his course through the northern part. Here the Aller seems to have been their northern and eastern boundary. They also possessed some territory on the west bank of the Weser. Their national league comprised all the tribes between the Weser, the Rhine and the Lippe-the Cattuarii, Ansiberii, Dulgumnii, Marsi, Chamaveri, &c. 'The Romans first became acquainted with the Cherusei in the year 10 B. C., when Drubus forced his way as far as the Weser, but, for want of provisions, was obliged to return. In the following year, he advanced from the Weser towards the Elbe, on the north side of the Hercynian forest, through the midst of the Cherusci. At that time, they were not very formidable. In the year 7 B.C., they'even entered into an alliance with the Romans, and served in their armies. But when Varus-attempted to make them tributary to Rome, and subject them to the Roman laws, they revolted. Varus, being decoyed by them into the forest of Te troburg, in the year 9 A.D., was destroyed, with his whole army, in a battle which lasted three days. (See . Irminius and Germania.) Lipon, this, the Cheruser became the chief object of the attacks of the Romans. Germanicu- (q. v.), victorious over the Marsi and Catta, marched against the Cheruser, whose leaders, Segestus and Arminius (the latter of whom had carried off the daughter of the former), were at war with each other. Segestus, pressed by Armin.us, called Germanicus to lus aid, who dehvered hun, indeed, from his danger, but was obliged to return, after several canpaigns, without having obtained any permanent advantages. By their last successes, the Chemisci had become very powerful Their alliance with the Lombards and Seranones, who had renounced the Marcommunic confederacy, and the victory of Arminus over the Marconianni under Marobodius, raised the Cherusci to the first rank among the German nations. But, after the assassination of Arminius (21 A. D.), new disturbances broke out among them. They committed the supreme command to Italicus, the last survivor of the family of Arminus, but soon after expei led him. The Lombards restored him to his rights and dignity, after a long anddestructive war with the Cherusci, who,

abandoned by their allies, were now cenfired to the territory botween the caple and the south side of the Hercynian forest. In the third century, they, with their former allies, were swallowed up in the great Frankish confederacy, and no longer ap-

pear as a distinct people.

CHEBAPEAKE BAY; a spacious bay of North America, in the states of Virginia and Maryland. Its entrance is between expe Charles and cape Henry, 16 miles wide; and it extends 190 miles to the northward, through the states of Virginia and Maryland, dividing them into two parts, called the eastern and western shores. It is from 7 to 20 miles broad, and generally as much as 9 fathoms deep; affording many commodious harbors, and a safe and casy navigation. It receives the waters of the Susquehanna, Potomae, Rappahannoc, York and James rivers, which are all large and navigable.

CHESELDEN, William; a celebrated English surgeon and anatomst. He was born in Leicestershire, in 1688, and, after a common school education and, some medical instruction in the country, he went to London to projecute his studies. At the age of 22, he began to give lectures on anatomy, and, in 1711, he was chosen F. R. S. In 1713, he published a treatise on the Anatomy of the Human Body, No., long esteemed a favorite manual of the science. He continued to read his lectures for more than 20 years, during which he gradually rose to the head of his profession. In 1723, he published a Treatise on the High Operation for the Stone. Cheselden, who was a very dexterous and successful operator, afterwards added to his reputation by practising what is termted the lateral method of operating for the stone, since generally adopted. A peculiar operation, which he performed on a youth of 14, who had been blind from tabirth, and who obtained his sight by means of it, attracted much notice; and, in 1728, he published an account of it in the Philosophical Transactions. In 1733 was losophical Transactions. published his Osteography, or Austoiny of the Bones, folio, consisting of plates and short explanation-, a splendid and accurate work. Cheselden obtained, in 17:37. the appointment of chief surgeon to Chelsea hospital. This situation he held till his death, which took place at Bath, April . 10, 1752, in consequence of a fit of apoplexy. Besides the productions already mentioned, he published a translation from the French of Le Dran's Surgery, and several anatomical and surgical papers in the Philosophical Transactions.

The private character of Cheselden was generally respectable; but he was not exempt from faults and foibles. Among these was a predilection for pugilism, and a degree of vanity which rendered him more ambitious of being thought a skilful architect or coachmaker than a good anatomist. He was, however, humane and liberal, and was much esteemed by Pope and other literary men with whom he was

acquainted.

CHESS; the most celebrated and general of all sedentary games. One of the greatest charms of chess hes, no doubt, in the circumstance, that, whilst man is everywhere surrounded by chance; in this game, as generally played, he has entirely ex--cluded it, except that it must be decided by chance which of the two players shale begin. The game affords so much vanety, so much scope for calculation, so many opportunities to exhibit foresight and penetration, that it has been held in great esteem by all nations acquainted with it, and all persons who have conquered the difficulties of learning it. The Mohammedans except chess from the law against gambling. Whilst this game affords enjoyment worthy of mature minds, it is an excellent exercise for the young, as it teaches patience and circumspection. strengthens the judgment, and encourages perseverance in a plan affording a prospect of eventual success, though, at the moment, the situation of things may appear very critical. The Chinese pretend to have known it 200 years previous to om era. It was brought, in the sixth conture, from India to Persia, whence it was sprend by the Arabians and the crusaders all over the civilized world. It is most commonly played in Asia. In fact, its whole composition and its name prove its A-natic origin. In Sanscrit, it is called schthrautsh, a word which is believed to indicate the most important compensa: parts of an ancient Fastern army—ele-But this name was supplanted horses. by the Persian term shah (king), which the game has retained, more or less corrapted, in all languages. Generally, chess is played by two persons upon a board, the same as that used in draughts or chequers, containing 64 squares. The board must be so placed, that each player has a white square at his right hand. The squares are named from the pieces, viz.; that on which the king is placed is called the king's square; 'that on which the king's pawn is placed, the king's second square; that before the pawn, the king's

third square; the next, the hing's fourth; and so on with all the pieces of each side. Each player has eight pieces and eight pawns. In placing the pieces, the ancient ' is, the black queen is to be placed on the black square, in the middle of the line next to the player; in a similar way, the white queen on the white field. On the side of the king and the queen stand the bishops; then follow the two knights; and last, the rooks or castles. The object of the game is, to bring the adversary's king into such a situation that he cannot move, . which is called checkmating. The king The play ends with (It is related of doctor Franklin, that once, playing chess in Paris, and being checkmated, he said, "Take the king; I am a republican, and don't care for him.") It is not uninteresting to conader the different names which the pieces In the East, the queen is called by the more bishops are called, in Germany, runners; originally, elephants, with giants on thom. The knights are called, in German, leapers. The castles were, originally, warchariots, which is also indicated by the word rook, from the Indian roch, or roth. With the old Germans, the pawns, now called peasants, were styled Benden (Vandals), a tribe despised by the German-. Don John of Austria had a room, the floor of which was made like a chess board. On this he played with living persons. The peasants of a German village, Stropke, or Strobeck, near Halberstadt, for about 300 years, have been distinguished as chess-players. The reason for this is doubtful. players. The reason for this is doubtful. The most probable opinion is, that a certam bishop, who lived among them, made them acquainted with this game, and freed them from several taxes, on condition that they would continue to practise it. Numerous anecdotes show how much the game of chess can absorb the mind. The elector of Saxony, John Frederic, was taken prisoner in the battle at Mühlberg, by the emperor Charles V, and was playing at chess with his fellow-prisoner, Ernest of Brunswick, when it was intimated to him that the emperor had sentenced him to ceath. He paused for a moment, to remark on the irregularity of the proceeding, and immediately resumed the game, which he won, and expressed, in a lively manner, the pleasure which he derived from his victory.

can never be taken.

have received in various countries.

proper name of vizier, or general.

a checkmate.

VOL. III.

· 12

Charles XII of Sweden pityed at them when he was so closely besieged in the house near Bender, by the Turks. At Amin, caliph of Bagdad, would not be disrule is to be followed—serval regina color, turbed in chess-playing when his city was rem (the queen maintains the color)—that carried by assault. Frederic the Great loved chess much. Napoleon did not play it 'particularly well. Among the most famous players and writers on the game are, a duke of Brunswick, named Augustus, who, in the 17th century, published, upder the name of Selenus, an Introduction to the game (1616, 4to.), now very rare; Philidor, a Frenchman, who was particularly distinguished in London, in 1780-90; Gioacchino Greco, celebrated in the beginning of the 17th century; and the Arabian Philip Stamma in Paris, 1737. Caxton's "Game and Playe of the Chesse," printed in 1474, is generally admitted to be the first typographical work executed in England. Anastasia, a German novel by Heynse, contains many ingenious ideas on chess-playing, and several fine games. Some very curious manuscripts, relating to this game, in the Chinese, Sanscrit, Persan and Arabic and in France, fools (four). The were, languages, have been partially translated; and the presses of Europe have teemed with similar productions, the most noted of which are enumerated by Mr. Lewis, in the preface to his edition of Saratt on Ches, 1822.—Laws of the game, 1. If the board, or pieces, be improperly placed, the mistake cannot be rectified after four moves on each side are played. 2. When a player has touched a piece, he must move it, unless it was only to replace it; when he must say, *Padoube*, or *I replace*.

3. When a player has quitted a piece, he cannot recall the move.

4. If a player touch one of his adversary's pieces without saying *Fudoube*, he may be compelled to take it, or, if it cannot be taken, to move his king. 5. When a pawn is moved two steps, it may be taken by any adversary's pawn, which it passes, and the capturing pawn must be placed in that square over which the other leaps. 6. The king cannot castle if he has before moved, if he is in check, if in castling he passes a check, or if the rook has moved. 7. Whenever a player checks his adversary's king, he must say Check, otherwise the adversary need not notice the check. If the player should, on the next move, attack the queen, or any other piece, and then say Check, his adversary may replace his last move. and defend his king. 8. When a pawn reaches the first row of the adversary's side, it may be made a queen, or my other piece the player chooses. 9. If a

false move is made, and is not discovered until the next move is completed, it canof the adverse king, nor can any player move a piece or pawn that leaves his king in check.

Chess Clubs; societies for the purpose of playing chess, and assembling the best players of a place. They flourish most in France and England, but there are many in Germany. They often challenge each other, and the game is carried on by

` letter.

the thorax) is the cavity of the body be-, tween the neck and the belly. The external parts of the thorax are the skin, the Abreasts, various muscles, and the bones which form the frame of the cavity. These are the sternum, running from the neck down the middle of the breast, and the ribs, which are inserted in the spine, and arched towards the stermin, with which they are firmly connected by means of a cartilage. The parts within the cavity of the thorax are the pleura and its productions, the lungs, heart, thymus gland, œsophagus, thoracic duct, arch of the aorts, part of the vena cava, the vena azygos, the eighth pair of nerves, and part , of the great interestal nerve.

CHESTER (anciently Dera). a city of England, capital of Cheshire, on the Dee, about 20 miles from the Insh sea, 145 N. Bristol, 181 N. W. London : lon. 2 53' W .: lat. 535 11° N.; population, 19949. It is a bishop's see. The city is square, and surrounded by a wall nearly two miles in cucumference. It contains a cathedral, mne parish churches, a Roman Catholic chape L and eight places of worship for thesenters of different persuasions. The streets are of different persuasions. hollowed out of aerock to the depth of one story beneath the level of the ground on each side; and the houses have a sort of covered portico running on from house to house, and from street to street, level with the ground behind, but one story above the street in front. The castle is a noble structure; the walls are evidently Norman. It has two yearly fairs, the most considerable in the north of England, held on the 5th of July and 10th of Oct., each lasting 14 days. The manufactures are lasting 14 days not extensive; they consist chiefly of tobacco, snuff, shot, white lead, iron, tobacco pipes and leather. It sends two members to parliament.

CHESTERFIELD (Philip Dormer Stanhope), earl of, a statesman, orator and author, born in London, in 1694, studied

with great success at Cambridge. In 1714, he made a tour through Europe, not be recalled. 10. The king cannot be and acquired, particularly at Paris, that moved into check, nor within one square polished grace of manners for which he was distinguished. On the accession of George I, general Stanhope, his great uncle, procured him the place of gentleman of the bed-chamber to the prince of Wales; and the borough of St. Germain's, in Cornwall, elected him to parliament, though he had not yet attained the legal age. At the close of the first month of his membership, he delivered a speech, in which he astonished the audience by the vigor CHEST (called, in anatomical language, of his thoughts no less than by the elegance of his style, and the facility and grace of his delivery. He distinguished himself equally in the house of lords, in which he took his seat after his father's death. In 1729, he was appointed ambassador to Holland, and succeeded in delivering Hanover from the calamines of a war, by which it was threatened. On his return, he was made knight of the garter and lord steward of the household to George II. He was afterwards appointed lord-heutenant of Ireland, and, on his return, in 1746, received the place of secretary of state; but he soon retired from public affair, and devoted the remainder of his life to study and the society of his friends. His talents as an author are displayed in several moral, critical and humorous essays, in his parliamentary speeches, which were printed at a later period, and particularly in a collection of letters to his son, which are celebrated throughout Europe. To the charms of wit and grace he united good sense, a thorough knowledge of the manners, customs and the soluteal condition of Europe, extensive information, a noble and unaffected cheance, and a style that would do honor to the most experienced writer. All this: however, cannot excuse the corrupt moral tone of his letters. One is shocked to hear a father recommending to his son grace of manner as the most essential quality for a man of the world, and even insugating him to becutious irregularities. must be mentioned, however, in his excuse, that the young man to whom these letters were addressed (a natural son, whom he had adopted under the name of Stanhope), was remarkable for the awkwardness of his manners, and that his father, who serso high a value on elegance, hoped to inspire him with the same taste, by setting the subject in its strongest light. His efforts, however, were not successful. Towards the close of his life, Chesterfield became deaf, and suffered from other

Pope, Swift, Bolingbroke, and other distinguished scholars, and an acquaintance of doctor Johnson, who called him a wit among lords, and a lord among wits, and said of his letters, that they taught the morals of a prostitute and the manners of a dancing-master. He died in 1773, at

the age of 79.

CHESTNUT. The sweet chestnut (fagus rastanea) is a stately tree, and is distinguished by having spear-shaped and pointed leaves, with tapering serratures at the edge. The flowers appear in long, hangmg spikes, or clusters, about the month of May; and the fruit, which is ripe in September, is enveloped in a husk defended by a great number of complicated prickles. Notwithstanding the known durability of the oak, there does not appear any well authenticated instance of the age of an oak being equal to that of the colebrated chestnut-tree at Tortworth, in Gloucestershire, which was known as a boundart mark in the reign of king John. This tree is supposed to have been then more than 500 years old; making its age at this time above 1100 years. The diameter of its trunk is 15 feet, and it still continues to hear fruit. Few forest trees are more beautiful than the chestnut. It is true that the gere the ty of painters prefer the oak for its pice turesque form; yet, in the landscapes of Salvator Rosa, and other celebrated masters, chestnut-trees are very conspicuous. The tumber of this tree was formerly much in use. It is frequently used for the beams and ratiers of houses, and its appearance so nearly resembles that of the oak, that it requires the eye of a good judge to distinguish them from each other. For the heads and staves of casks, the wood of the chestnut is considered peculiarly excel-lent; and pipes made of it for the conveyance of water under ground are said to b¢ more durable than those made of either elm or oak. For furniture, it may be stained so as somewhat to resemble mabogany. Hop-poles and poles for espaliers, and dead fences, made of young chestmut-trees, are preferred to most others. In the U. States, it is chiefly used in the manufacture of rails for fences.

CHESTNUT, HORSE. (See Horse-Chest-

nut.)

CHEVAL, A (French); on horseback; astride any object. In a military sense, a body of troops is said to be a cheral of a river, if one wing is stationed on the right and the other on the left bank.

CHEVAUX DE FRISE (Friesland horses,

bodily infirmities, which cast a gloom so called because first used at the slege over his last days. He was intimate with of Groningen, in that province, in 1658); an armed beam of square timber or iron, used to defend the fronts of camps, breaches, &c. They are usually from 15 to 18 feet long, and connected by chains, each being perforated with small holes, to receive rods of wood or iron, pointed at their extremities, and, when moved in any direction, affording a sort of hedge of

Cuezy, Antoine Leonard; born at Paris, in 1773; professor of the Oriental languages, first professor of the Sanscrit language and literature in the collège royal, at Paris, the chair of which was established for him by Louis XVIII; and one of the conservators of the royal or national library. He has translated the poem Mejnun and Leila from the Persian into French, from which A. Th. Hartmann (Lepsic, 1807) translated it into German. In 1814, he published an episode from the Sanscrit, entitled Death of Yajuadatta. His wife 14 known in Germany, under the name of Helmina, as a prose writer and a poetess. Her mother was a daughter of the well-known German poetess, madame Karschin. Helmina wa- born in Berlin, Jan. 26, 1783, lived for a time with madame de Genhs in Paris, and resides in or near Vienna. She has written poetry, novels, tales, and an opera, Euryanthe, for Maria von Weber.

CHIABRERA, Gabriel; a poet, born at Savona, in the Genoese territory, in 1552. Sound in mind and body, he lived to a great age, and died at Savona in 1638. His poetical genus developed itself late. and he was considerably advanced, when he began to study the poets attentively. He preferred the Greeks, and particularly Pindar, his admiration for whom inspired hun with the desire of imitating him. Thus he created a manner and style which was altogether different from that of the other Italian lyric poets, and which procured him the surname of the Italian Pindar. Liqually successful were his attempts to mutate Anacreon; his canzonets are as cusy and elegant as his canzoni are sublune. He is, besides, the author of several epic, dramatic, pastoral and other poems. His fame soon spread over all Italy. He visited Rome, and resided a considerable time at Florence and Genoa. Wherever he went, he was loaded with presents and honors.

CHIAUT'S, OF CHIAOT'S, is a French corruption of the Turkish word chaush, or charush, the title of the royal messengers or gentlemen-ushers in the court of the grand signor. Their office partakes both other respects, becomes a picture only by of a civil and military character, and they means of the chiaro scuro, which gives set as the heralds and messengers of the faithfulness to the representation, and

empire.

CHIARAMONTI; the family name of pope Pius VII. (q. v.) Like his predecessors, Clement XIV and Pius VI, from whom the museum Pio-Clementinum is called, he augmented the treasures of art in the Vatican. The museums established there by him and during his government are called after him; but this name is partic-· ularly applied to that collection of uncient statues and reliefs, which are placed in the hall adjoining the museum Pio-Cle-The selection and arrangementinum. ment of these were committed to Canova. The description of this museum (Il Musco Chiaramonti descritto ed illustrato da Filippo Aurelio l'isconti e Gius. Int. Guattani, &c., Rome, 1818, fol.) forms a supplement to the work on the museo Pio-\*Clementino, published by Gramb, and Ennio Quir, Visconti.—The entrance into the musco Chiaramonti, as well as into the library of the Vatican, is by the musco Chiaramonti) delle inscrizioni, the museum of Greek and Roman imperiptions, which are inserted in the walls of a long corridor—a collection which has not its equal in Europe. The pope caused it to be arranged by Gaet. Marim. The entrance to it is through the loggic of the Vancan. There is also a Biblioteca Chiaramonti, containing the whole library of cardinal Zelada, which has been added to the Vatican.

CHIARI, Pietro: a prolitic writer of comedies and novels; born at Breseia, towards the beginning of the 18th century. After having completed his studies, he entered the order of Jesuits, but soon changed the monastic for the secular life. and, thus becoming free from all official dufies, devoted himself solely to letters. He resided at Venice, with the tith of poet to the duke of Meclena, and, in the space of 10 or 12 years, brought more than 60 comedies on the stage. Chiari and Goldoni were rivals, but the public adjudged the palm to the latter. Chian's dramas in verse fill 10 vols.; those in prose, 4. He is not destitute of invention nor of art in the management of his subjects, but his works are deficient in animation, vigor and humor. He died at Brescia, at a very advanced age, in 1787 or 1788.

CRIARO SCURO (an Italian phrase, meaning clear-obscure; in French, clair-obscure), in painting, is the art of judiciously dutributing the lights and shadows in a pre-ture. A composition, however perfect in

means of the chiaro scuro, which gives faithfulness to the representation, and therefore is of the highest importance for the painter; at the same time, it is one of the most difficult branches of an artist's study, because of the want of precise rules for its execution. Every art has a point where rules fail, and genius only can direct. This point, in the art of painting, is the chiaro scuro. The drawing of a piece may be perfectly correct, the coloring may be brilliant and true, and yet the whole picture remain cold and hard. This we find often the case with the ancient painters before Raphael: and it is one of the great merits of this subline artist, that he left his masters far behind him in chiaro scuro, though he is considered not so perfect in this branch as Cor-reggio and Titian, who were inferior to him in many other respects. The mode in which the light and shade are flistributed on any single object is easily shown by lines supposed to be drawn from the source of the light which is shed over the tigure: but chiaro scuro comprehends, besides this, aerial perspective, and the proportional force of colors, by which objects are made to advance or recede from the eye, produce a mutual effect, and form a united and beautiful whole. Chiaro scure requires great delicacy of conception and skill of execution; and excellence in this branch of art is to be attained only by the study of nature and of the best masters,-Chiaro scuro is also understood in another sense, peantings in chirgo scuro being such as are painted in light and shade and reflexes only, without any other color than the local one of the object, as representations of sculpture in stone or mable. There are some fine pieces of this sort in the Vatican at Rome, by Poldoro da Carayaggio, and on the walls of the staircase of the royal academy of London, by Cipriam and Rigard.

CHICKEN, MOTHER CAREY'S. (See Petrol.)

CHHUAHUA; a state or province of Mexico, bounded E. by Coaghuila, S. by Durango, and W. by Cinaloa and Sonora. It is an elevated district, and suffers for want of water.

Chihuahua; a town of Mexico, and capital of the province of the same name, on a small branch of the Conchos; 180 miles N. W. of Mexico; lon. 104° 30′ W.; lit. 28° 50′ N.; population, 11,600. It is surrounded by rich silver mines.

CHILBLAIRS are painful inflammatory swellings, of a deep purple or leaden color,

to which the fingers, toes, heels and other try, intercepted between the foot of the gent and shooting at particular times, and an insupportable itching attends it. In some instances, the skin remains entire; but in others, it breaks, and discharges a thin fluid. When the degree of cold has been very great, or the application long contin-ued, the parts affected are apt to mortify,, and slough off, leaving a foul, ill-condi-Children and old tioned ulcer behind. people are more apt to be troubled with chilblains than persons of middle age; and such as are of a scrofulous habit are remarked to suffer severely from thefu.

Childernas Day; a festival celebrated by the church on the 28th of Dec., in commemoration of the massacre of the Bourne, in his Intiquitates innocents. Vulgares, mentions a popular superstition, that "it is very unlucky to begin any work upon Childermas day." Revels, however, were held on this day.

Chile; a country of South America, bounded N. by Buenos Ayres, E. by Buenos Ayres and Patagoma, from which it is separated by the Andes, S. by Patagoma, and W. by the Pacific ocean: Ion. 69' to 74° W.; lat. 21' to 45° S.; about 1400 miles long, and from 100 to 200 broad; square nules about 200,000. Population stated, in 1806, at 720,000; by Malte-Brun, in 1820, and a Spanish journal, at 900,000. Another statement, and to be founded on a census, makes it 1,200,000, exclusive of independent Indians. It is divided into two intendeficies, St. Jako and Conception, which are subdivided into 13 provinces, viz. Copiapo, Coquanbo, Quillota, Aconcagua, Mchppa, St. Jago, Rancagua, Colchagua, Maule, Itata, Chillan, Puchacay and Hudquik mu. The islands are Cogumbanes, Mugillan, Tortoral, Pajaro, Masapiero, Juan Fernandes, Mocha, and the archipelago of Chiloc. The chief towns are Suntago or St. Jago (the capital), Conception, Valparaiso, Valdivia, Chillan, Coquimbo, St. Fernando and Petorca. The rivers are numerous, but small, and have generally rapid cur-Maule, Biobio, Cauten, Tolten, Valdivia, Chaivin, Bueno end Sinfondo. Chile presents a plain, gradually rising in elevation as it recedes from the coast and approaches the Andes. From this sloping conformation, it is fertilized and beautifich by numerous rivers flowing from the Andes; and of these, 53 communicate directly with the Pacific ocean. The coun-

extreme parts of the body are subject, on Andes and the Pacific ocean, is divided being exposed to a severe degree of cold. into two equal parts, the maritime and The pain is not constant, but rather pun- midland. The maritime part is intercepted by three ridges of mountains, running parallel with the Andes, between which are numerous well-watered valleys. The midland country is generally level, of great fertility, and emoying a delightful climate.'. The great chain of the Ander traverses the country from north to south, and presents a number of summits, the height of which has been estimated at upwards of 20,000 feet. Among the Chilean Andes there are said to be 14 volcanoes in a state of constant eruption, and a still greater . number that discharge smoke at intervals. Chile abounds with vegetable, animal and immeral productions. Maize, rye, barley, pulse, wine, oil, sugar, cotton, and fruits of various kinds, are cultivated. It has luxuriant pastures, which feed numerous herds of cattle. It is rich in mines of gold, silver, copper, tin and iron. All the metals are found; also a variety of earths and precious stones. It is free from dangerous or venomous animals, which are so much dreaded in hot countries, and has but one species of small serpent, and that perfectly harmless. The climate is remarkably saful nous, and the weather generally screme. In the northern provinces, it rarely rains, in some parts never, but dews are abundant; in the central part, ram often continues 3 or 4 days in succession, followed by 15 of 20 days of thir weather; in the southern provinces, rams are much more abundant, and often continue 9 or 10 days without cessation. The ramy season commences in April, and continues through August. Snow falls abundantly on the Andes, but is never seen on the coast. Larthquakes are common. Chile was formerly a colony of Spain, but, in 1810, the people took the government into their own hands, and, in 1818, made a declaration of absolute independence, which has been hitherto unniterrupted, and recently acknowledged by Portugal. The supreme authority was administered by an elective magistrate. called the supreme director, until May, rents. Some of the principal ones are the 1827, when a president was substituted. Maule, Biobio, Cauten, Tolten, Valdivia, in unitation of the government of the U. States. The Roman Catholic is the established religion of Chile, and the church . is very rich. There are said to be about 10,000 monks and nuns in this country, and the religious institutions with which they are connected hold nearly one third . of the landed property of the country. The army, in 1816, was stated at \$400

regular troops; the militia at 28,960 men, and the revenue at \$2,177,967. The part of Chile lying south of the river Biobio, in lat. 36° 44' S., is inhabited chiefly by Indians. The Araucanians, a cele-'the Araucanians. heated and warlike tribe, inhabit the region lying between the rivers Biobio and Valdivia. They are enflusiastically attached to liberty, and have never been sub-· dued.—Of the history of Chile, previous to the middle of the 15th century, nothing, more is known than what may in derived from the vague traditions of the natives. In 1535, the Spaniards first visited it. They were, at first, received by the Chileans with the utmost respect; but a cruel massacre of some of their chief men, by order of Almagro, the Spanish general, produced opposite feelings; and Almagro, advancing into the country of the Promaneians, was defeated with loss, when the Spaniards, disgusted with their general, and with the state of affairs, returned to Peru, where they arrived in 1538. Two years afterwards, Pizarro despatched Pedro de Valdivia, with 200 Spaniards and a numerous body of Peruvians, to Chile, for the purpose of settling such districts as he should conquer. Valdivia succeeded in overcoming the resistance of the natives, and founded the cut of Santiago, Feb. 24, 1541. Hostilities with the natives ensued, till Valdivia, having settled his power in the northern prov-inces of Clule, turned his arms against the southern portion of the country. In 1550, he founded the city of Conception, and was soon afterwards attacked by the Araucamans, with whom he fought several battles, and was finally defeated and taken prisoner, Dec. 3, 1553. Many battles were subsequently fought between the Spaniards and this tribe of Indians, which, though they generally terminated in favor of the former, were destructive to them, and impeded the progress of the settle-ments. In 1598, a general insurfection of the Araucanians took place; and, with the assistance of their allies, they put to death every Spaniard whom they found outside of the forts. Villanca, Valdivia, Imperial, and several other towns, were attacked and taken, and Conception and, Chillar were burnt. To add to the misfortunes of the Spaniards, the Dutch landed on the Chilor islands, phundered Chilor, and put the Spanish garrison to the sword. Hostilities were continued for many years without any extraordinary result. Each similarnts, and a junta of government was party seemed obstinate in its determination, and each committed cruelties and outrages, with which the history of South

America is unhappily too familiar. At length, in 1641, preliminaries of peace were finally settled between the marquis of Baydes, then governor of Chile, and By the terms of the treaty, the two nations agreed to suspend ' hostilities, and the Araucanisms engaged to prevent any foreign power from landing on their territories. Two years afterwards, the Dutch made an attempt to settle a colony at Valdivia; but, hearing that an army of Spaniards and Araucanians were marching against them, they evac-uated Chile. The peace between the Spaniards and Araucamans lasted until 1655, when hostilities again broke out with fueir former fury, and continued for 10 years with various success. At the end of this period, a formal treaty was made. This peace was more lasting than the former, and, until the beginning of the 18th century, the history of Chile presents little deserving of record. Though tranquil for so long a time, the spirit of the Araucanians was not broken, nor was their aversion to the Spaniards abated In 1723, a general conspiracy was formed by the nations from the borders of Peru to the river Biobio. ' At a fixed moment, when the watch-fires were to blaze on the mountains, the Indians were to rise against the whites, and release the country from their yoke. The design, however, mecarried: only the Araucanians took up arms; and, after a short contest, peace was again concluded. In 1742, don Josef Manto, then governor, collected the colomes into towns divided the country into provinces, and founded several new cities. In 1770, as attempt of don Antonio Gonzago to compel the Araucanians to adopt habits of industry, and to associate in towns, has the cause of a new war. At tength, peace was restored, one condition of which was that the Araucanians should keep a resident inmister at Bantingo-a supulation which proves their power and importance. Chile appears to have enjoyed tranquillity during the remainder of the 18th century, and, being relieved from the hostility of the Araucanians, agriculture and commerce, which had been greatly neglected, soon revived. The occupation of Spain by the French troops. in 1809, caused a revolutionary movement in Chile, as well as in other parts of Spanish America. July 10, 1810, the president Carrasco was deposed by the native informed, under the pretext of holding the country for Ferdinand, but with the secret intention of ultimately proclaiming inde-

pendence. 'At this period, the most active have been made to effect a solid organi and influential persons were the three zation of the government by means of a Carreras, Rodriguez and O'Higgins, the permanent constitution. One constituent government being, in reality, exercised by the Carreras. In 1814, Chile was invaded 1824, and a third in 1826; but neither of by a royalist army from Peru, under the 'them accomplished the object of their command of general Osorio; and the defeat of the patriots at Rancagua, Oct. 1, 1814, compelled the leading individuals to cross the Ander, and seek refuge in Buenos Ayres, leaving their country in possession of the Spaniards. In 1817, the patriots obtained succors from Buenos Ayres, commanded by general San Marun, and reentered Chile at the head of a' powerful body of troops, which defeated the Spaniards at Chacabuco, Feb. 12, 1817, and agam at Maypu, April 5, 1817, and thus permanently secured the independence of the country. By the intrigues of San Martin, the three Carreras and their friend Rodriguezethe best men in Chile, were shamefully fourdered, and his favorite, don Bernardo O'Hıggıns, was placed at the head of the government, with the title of supreme director. Meanwhile, San Martin, with the liberating army, and aided by a Chilean fleet under lord Cochrane, invaded Peru in return, and gave it a temporary independence. O'Higgins continued to administer the government until Jan. 23, 1823, when he was compelled to resign the supreme authority, owing chiefly to the dissatisfaction of the people with his financial measures. He was succeeded by general Ramon Freire, the latter being appointed supreme director. In January, 1826, the archipelago of Chiloc, which had remained to that time in the hands of the Spaniards, surrendered to the government of Chile. But disturbances have existed among the Araucamans, on the southern frontier, down to the present time, occasioning more or less meonvemence to the Chileans. In other respects, Clule has been wholly unmolested by foreign enemies, unless an attempt of the exile O'Higgins upon Chiloe, in 1826, can be considered such. But the unsettled state of the government, and the maladministration of us affairs, have impeded the prosperity of the country .- In July, 1826, the director Freire resigned his office, and admiral Manuel Blanco was appointed in his place. In May, 1827, the form of the government was changed, and, Blanco having resigned, Freire was again called to the head of affuirs as president, but refused to be qualified; and the administration of the government devolved upon don Francisco A. Pinto, the vice-president. Three attempts

congress assembled in 1823, another in meeting, and the country is agitated still. between the advocates of a central and of a federal constitution. (Stevenson's South Am., vol. iii.; Amer. An. Reg., vol. i. and ii.)

CHILLICOTHE; a post-town and capital of Ross county, Ohio, on the west bank of the Scioto, 45 miles in a right line, and 70 according to the windings, from its mouth; 42 miles S. Columbus; 93 E. by N. Cincinnati; lon. 82° 57′ W.; lat. 39° 18′ N.; population, 2426. It is pleasantly situated on the borders of an elevated, extensive and fertile plain, regularly laid out, the streets crossing each other at right angles, and is a flourishing town. It contains a court-house, a jail, a market-house, 3 houses of public worship, a rope-walk, 4 cotton manufactories, and a steam mill. In the vicinity of the town there are many valuable unlis.

CHILLINGWORTH, William; an eminent divine and writer on controversial theology. He was born at Oxford, in 1602, and received his education at Trinity college, in the university of that city. He did not confine his academical studies to divinity, but also throughed, himself as a mathematicum, and cultivated poetry. Metaphysics and religious casuistry, however, appear to have been his favorite pursuits; and lord Clarendon, who was particularly intimate with him, celebrates his rare talents as a disputant, and says he had "contracted such an irresolution and liabit of doubting, that, by degrees, he grew confi-dent of nothing? This sceptical disposi-, tion laid hun open to the arguments of a Jesuit, who persuaded in that the church of Rome, in establishing the authority of the pope as an infallible judge, afforded the only means for ascertaining the true religion. He was convinced by this reasoning, and converted, but subsequently came to the conclusion that he had acted erroneously, and wrote several pieces to justify his second conversion, especially The Religion of Protestants a safe Way to Salvation, first published in 1637. Some scruples of conscience, relative to signing the thirty-nine articles, prevented him, for a time, from obtaining church preferment. His scruples, however, were so far overcome, that he made the subscription in the usual form, and was promoted to the chancellorship of Salisbury, with the prebend of Brixworth annexed, in July, 1638.

٠, On the civil war taking place, Chilling-worth joined the king's party, and employed his pen in a treatise Of the Unlaw-fulness of resisting the lawful Prince, although most impious, tyrannical and idol-atrous. This tract was not, however, committed to the press. He did not confine himself to literary efforts in support of the royal cause, having, at the siege of Gloucester, in 1643, acted as engineer. His classical reading suggested to him an imitation of some Roman machine for the attack of fortified places; but the approach of the parliamentary army pre-vented the trial of it against the walls of Gloucester. Not long after, he retired to Arundel castle, in an ill state of health, and was made a prisoner on the surrender of that fortress to sir Wilham Waller. Being removed, at his own request, to Chichester, he died in the episcopal palace, in January, 1644. Chillingworth published sermons and other theological works, of which the best edition is that of doctor Birch, 1742, tolio.

Chiloe: a considerable island in the south Pacific ocean, on the coast of Chile; lon. 72° 45′ W.: lat. 43° S.; 140 miles long, and 60, where widest, broad. It produces most of the necessaries of life; and much ambergris is found here. The cedar-trees grow to an amazing size. There are many small islands east of Chiloe, in a narrow sea, called the archipelago of Chiloe, which separates the island from the continent. Population of the whole, 26,000. Chief town, San Carlos. There are 47 islands in the archipelago of Chiloe, 32 of them inhabited.

CHILTERN HILLS: a range of chalky hills, in England, in the county of Oxford, once covered with woods, supposed to have been, at one time, a royal forest. There still remains a nominal office, called the stewardship of the Chillern hundreds, in the gait of the crown. By the acceptance of this, a member of the house of commons vacates his seat in parliament. It is, therefore, generally conferred on such members as wish to resign their seats.

CHIMERA. (See Chimera.)

CHIMAY. Theresa, princess of; the divorced wife of Tallien. This lady, celebrated for her adventures, is the daughter of count Cabargus (e.v.) and a lady of Saragossa named Galabert. Endowed by nature with rare beauty and an ardent temperament, she early gave herself up to her inclinations, and had an intrigue with prince Listenay, who was on his way from Paris to Madrid, to marry the daughter of the duke of Lavauguyon,

French ambassador at the Spanish court, Her family, however, favored the suit of M. de Fontenay. Theresa married him, and followed her husband to Paris, where they arrived a short time before the breaking out of the revolution. She embraced its principles with the greatest zeal, cultivated the friendship of the most distinguished members of the constituent assembly, and made her house the centre of the most splendid society. Her union with M. de Fontenay not being a happy one, she had recourse to the new law of divorce, and, in 1793, her marriage was dissolved, and M. de Fontenay became an emigrant. She now became the patrones of all societies devoted to literature or art, and took a particular interest in the lectures (cours de littérature) of La Harpe, which were delivered in the Lyceum, and were frequented by the most elegant society of Paris. After the 31st of May, when the reign of terror be-, came so appalling in the capital, Theresa retired to Bordeaux, where she met Tallien, a member of the convention, whom she had formerly slightly known as a clerk in the office of Alexander Lameth, chairman (rapporteur) of the inilitary commattee in the constituent assembly. This hen was on a mission at Bordeaux executing the bloody decrees of the national convention. He conceived an affection for madame de Fontenay, who was not less annable than beautiful, and they soon formed the tenderest connexion. She seems to have yielded to Tallien's wishes. only on conflitton that he would use his influence to avert from the city of Bordeaux the cruel fate of Lyons and Nantes. where fusillades and noyades were the or-der of the day. It was soon perceived by the committee of public safety, that Tallien was no longer sufficiently zealous m his revolutionary principles; he was therefore recalled to Paris to defend himself against the charges which had been brought against him. Theresa was arrested, and likewise carried to Paris, to appear before the revolutionary tribunal. The 9th Thermdor (27th of July, 1794) was near at hand: Danton's blood was yet steaming. Robespierre intended a new act of violence. The adherents of his enemy, that tribune, formerly so termble, but now crushed, were to be destroyed with one blow. At their head stood Tallien. Theresa was destined to follow ham to the guillotine. But the secret of the tyrant was betrayed. Love inspired Tallien with energy, and the 9th of Thermidor delivered France from Robespierre.

A few days afterwards, Tallien and Theresa confirmed their union before the altar. She had the most beneficent influence upon her husband's public life, and all her efforts were exerted to assist the unfortunate and the sufferers by the revolution. By her political influence, and by her beauty, which was then in the highest bloom, she again attracted the eyes of all Paris, and, wherever she appeared in public, was received with accla-mations. Theresa and Josephine de Beauharnais, afterwards empress of France, were the principal ornaments of the splendid circle which Barras had assembled around him! Gratitude to her husband did not, however, prevent her from entering into other passing connexions, as taste or caprice prompted. Tallien followed Bonaparte to Egypt, and was soon forgotten. On her application, she was formally divorced, but a friendly intercourse always subsisted between her and Tallien. Napoleon, who, before his connexion with Josephine, had shown much attention to madame Tallien, broke off all intercourse with her when first-consul and emperor, and could never be induced to grant her admission to court. She was thus thrown into the opposition, and led to her connexion with madaine de Stael and her third husband, count François Caraman, whom she married in 1805, and who at-terwards, in consequence of inheriting an estate, assumed the title of prince of Chimay. Four children are the off-pring of this marriage. She lives, at present, in Paris, or on the estate of her husband.

CHIMBORAZO; a mountain of Colorabia, in the province of Quito, about 100 miles S. by W. Quito; lat. about 2° S. It is the most elevated summat of the Andes, rising to the height of 21,440 feet above the level of the sea, and covered with perpetual snow 2000 feet from the summit and upwards. It presents a magnificent spectacle when seen from the shores of the Pacific ocean after the long runs of writer, when the trunsparency of the air is suddenly increased, and its enormous circular summit is seen projected upon the deep azure-blue of the equatorial sky. The great rarity of the air, through which the tops of the Andes are seen, adds very much to the splendor of the mow, and aids the magical effect of its reflection. This mountain was ascended, in 1802, by Humboldt and Bonpland, who reached to within 2140 feet of the summit, being, by barometrical measurement, 19,300 feet above the level of the sea —a greater elevation than eyer was

before attained by man. Their further ascent was prevented by a chasm 500 feet wide. The air was intensely cold and piercing, and, owing to its extreme rarity, blood cozed from their lipst eyes and gums, and respiration was difficult. One of the party fainted, and all of them felt extreme weakness. Condamine ascended, in 1745, to the height of 15,815 feet.

CHIMERA; a fabuleus monster, breathing flames, with the head of a liou, the body of a goat, and the tail of a dragon, which laid waste the fields of Lycia, and was at last destroyed by Bellerophon. (See Hipponous.) Her form is described by the poets as an unnatural mixture of the most incongruous parts. Therefore the name of chimera is used for a nondescript, an unnatural production of fancy. According to some, Chimera was a volcano in Lycia, around the top of which dwelt lions, around the middle goats, and at the foot poisonous serpents. Bellerophon is said to have been the first who repidered this mountain habitable.

CHIMES, in horology, is a species of music, mechanically produced by the strokes of hammers against a series of bells, tuned agreeably to a given scale in music. The hammers are lifted by levers, acted upon by metallic pins, or wooden pegs, stuck into a large barrel, which is nade to revolve by clock-work, and is so connected with the striking part of the clock-mechanism, that it is set in motion by it at certain intervals of time, usually 'every hour, or every quarter of an hour. The music thus produced may consist of a direct succession of the notes constituting an octave, frequently repeated, or otherwise may be a psalm-tune, or short popular air in the key to which the bells are tuned. This species of mechanical music most probably had its origin, like clock-work itself, in some of the monastic uistitutions of Germany, in the middle ages. The first apparatus for producing it, is said to have been made at Alost, in the Netherlands, in 1487. The chime niechanism may be adapted to act with the large bells of a church steeple, by means of wheel-work strong enough to raise heavy hammers; or a set of bells, of different diameters, may be arranged concentrically within one another on one common axis, sufficiently small to be introduced into the frame of a clock, or even of a watch. The chime mechanism is sometimes so constructed, that it may be played like a plane, but with the fist instead of the fingers. This is covered with leather, that the blow on the key

may be applied more forcibly. Difficult as the performance is, some players can execute compositions consisting of three parts, and even produce trills and arpeggios. Burney relates that the chimeplayer Scheppen, at Louvain, laid a wager with an able performer on the violin, that · he would execute a difficult solo for the violin with the bells, and won his wager. Pottheff, organist and chime-player at Amsterdam, became blind in his 7th year, and received the abovenamed appointment in his 31st year; and, although every key in his apparatus required a force, equal to a two-pound weight, yet he played his bells with the facility of a performer on the piano-forte. Burney heard him perform some fugues in 1772.

CHIMNEL. How far the Greek and Roman architects were acquainted with the construction of chimneys, is a matter No traces of such works of dispute. have been discovered in the houses of Pompen, and Varavius gives no rules for erecting them. The first certain nonce of chimneys, as we now build them, is believed to be that contained in an inscription at Venice, over the principal gate of the Scuola Grande di Sta. Maria della Carilà, which states that, m 1347, a great many chunneys were thrown down by an earthquake. Channeys require prevent their smoking, so great an annoyance to domestic comfort. It seems, at present, to be acknowledged, that it is much better to exclude the cold, damp air from the flues, by narrowing the aperture at the top, than to give a larger vent to the smoke, at the risk of admitting a quantity of air to rush down the flue. For this reason, claiming-pots are of great In Prussa, where the architectural police (Baupolizei) is strict, great 21tention is paid to the erection of climneys, and to the regular sweeping of them, the chimney-sweepers being bound to sweep the chimneys of a certain number of streets within a regular time; and, though the interference of a police in subjects of domestic economy is a delicate matter, the numerous fires which take place in the U. States, from the careless construction of chimneys, seem to make some public supervision of their security · desirable. The longer a chimney is, the more perfect is its draught, because the tendency of the smoke to draw upwards is in proportion to the different weight of the column of air included in a chimney and an equal column of external air. Short chimneys are hable to smoke, and

fire-places in upper stories are, therefore, more apt to smoke than those in the lower ones. Two flues in the same chimney should not communicate with each other short of the top. Some chimneys, in large, establishments in London, are very remarkable for their size.

CHIMNEYSWEEPERS are, in all countries, in a state deserving great pity. Their condition in London has led to the establishment of a Society for superseding the necessity of climbing-boys, by encouraging a new method of sweeping chimneys, and for improving the condition of children and 4 others employed by chimneysweepers. The subject has, likewise, occupied the attention of parliament, and due investigation has shown that there are few chimneys which cannot be swept as well by a machine as by boys. Most of the particulars relative to the evils of this trade (one of which is the incurably cancerous diseases to which the boys are very generally subject), and the facility with which a substitute may be provided for it, may be found in the Chimneysweeper's Friend, or Climbing-Boy's Album, by James Montgomery. In France, the little chimnevsweepers are generally Savoyards.

della Carità, which states that, in 1347, a great many chimneys were thrown down by an earthquake. Chimneys require much attention, to make them secure and prevent their smoking, so great an annoyance to domestic comfort. It seems, at the tobe acknowledged, that it is present, to be acknowledged, that it is much better to exclude the cold, damp air from the flues, by narrowing the aperture at the top, than to give a larger vent to the smoke, at the risk of admitting a quantity of air to rush down the flue. For this reason, chamney-pots are of great of a mallion sterling, as is proved by the books of accounts, preserved at the mayor's office in Truvillo.

China. The Chinese empire, including the tributary states, and those under its protection, consists of about 5,250,000 square miles, with 242,000,000 inhabitants. China Proper, "the centre of the world," contains 1,288,000 square miles (lat. 18° 37'—44° 35' N.), with 146,280,000 inhabitants, of whom 2,000,000 live on the water. Among the inhabitants are 31,000 sailors, 822,000 foot-soldiers, 410,000 horse, 7552 military and 9611 civil officers.—Subject to China are Mantchou (726,800 square miles), Mongolia (1,335,910 square miles), and Tourfan (578,275 square miles). Under her protection are Thibet, Bootan, Corea, Loo-Choo, containing together axigators who followed Vasco da Gama

were the first from whom the Europeans the former between China and the islands obtained tolerably correct ideas of the situation, extent and character of this country. Since that time, our knowledge of China has been derived from several ambassadors, who saw the court and the roads, from merchants who had inhabited the suburbs of one seaport (Canton), and from numerous missionaries, who relate what they have seen, but generally, with little disca mination. Much information is to be hoped from the Canton Register, a paper which is published twice a month in Canton.\* The emperors of the Mantchou dynasty, erroneously called • Tartars, have extended their conquests over the greatest part of the country formerly called Independent Tartary, the inhabitants of which are, however, not Tartars, but mostly Calmicks and Mongols. The Russians advanced, at the same time, into Siberia. Russia and China have thus come into contact, on a line extending from lake Palcati to the mouth of the river Amour. This extensive frontier is principally formed by the Altaian, Sayanan and Daourian mountains. In Daouria, however, the Russians have extended their possessions beyond the last-named mountains to the banks of the river Amour. Lake Palcati, the Alak mountains, and the Beloor mountains, divide the Chinese empire, on the west, from the Kirgnises, Usbecks, and other independent Tartar tubes. While the Chinese dominions extend to the confines of Asiane Russia on the north and northwest, on the west and south-west they extend over the immense regions of Thibet, and almost reach the English territories in Bengal. On this side, China is divided from India by the small countries of Sirmagur, Nepaul, and others, and by the Garrow mountains. Farther to the east, the Burman empire bounds on the Chinese province of Yun-nan. In the south, the empire of Anan and the provmees of Laos and Tongung touch its borders. The Eastern ocean, with the gulf of Corea, washes the coasts of China for an extent of 3600 miles, from the Tonquinese frontier to the mouth of the river Amour. To the south are the Chinese and Yellow seas, and the gulf of Tonquin. The channel of Formosa separates the island of that name from the continent. The Blue and Yellow seas flow,

\* A museum, to be called The British Museum on China, it is stated in the Canton Register, is about to be established among the British residents in that city. Perhaps this institution, also, will contribute to enlarge our knowledge of China.

of Loo-Choo and Japan, the latter between China and Corea. The sea of-Japan extends from Corea to the river Amour: at the extreme point, it goes under the name of the channel of Tartary .-China Proper is bounded on the east by the Eastern ocean; on the north, by the immense wall of Mongolia and Manchooria, which has been built more than 2000 years, and is 1500 miles in length, 30 feet high, and 15 feet thick on the top. To the west, political limits are prescribed to the wanderings of the Calmucks or Eleuthes of Hoho-Nor and of the Sifans. To the south, the boundaries of the Chinese empire and China Proper are the sume. China Proper contains 1572 towns, the principal of which are Pekin, Canton, and Nankin (q. v.); 1193 fortresses, 2796 temples, 2606 convents, 32 imperal palaces, &c. It is divided into 15 provinces. Two chains of mountains extend through the country; the one in the south-east, the other in the north-west. The former extends between the provinces Quang-si, Quang-tong, and Fo-Kien, on the south, and the province- Hoo-Quang and Kiangsi on the north. Its original course is from west to east, but, after reaching the limits of Fo-Kien, it turns to the northeast. The principal chain is difficult of access, particularly in the provinces of Kocit-Cheon and Quang-si, owing to the savage tribes by which it is inhabited. Travellers have only examined the little mountain Meiling, which rises 3000 feet above lake Po-yang. The beights to the north-west are rather a succession of terraces than regular chains of mountains. The province of Shan-si is full of mountains, which appear to belong to a chain extending from the banks of the river Amour, travering the whole of Mongoha. They are almost entirely composed of perpendicular rocks. The province of Shan-Tong consets, principally, of a mountainous peninsula. These mountams contain coal names, and form a group entirely detached from the other Chinese chains. The largest plans are in the province Kiang-Nan, between the two great rivers Hoang-ho and Yang-tse-Kiang or Kiang-Ku. The former, or the Yellow river, rises from two lakes in the country of the Calmucks of Hoho-Nor; the latter, or the Blue river, rises some-where in the north of Thibet, near the desert of Cobi. Both descend rapidly. from the table-lands of central Asia, and each encounters a chain of mountains which forces it to describe a long circuit,

se Hoelig-he to the north, the Yang silkworms and spin cetton; they al the Kiang to the south,—after which they again approach, and terminate their courses within a distance of 180 miles of ach other. Besides these, there are the Fuen-ho, the Hoei-ho, and the Hoay-ho, which empty into the Blue river; the Yalon-Kiang, which is about 600 miles long, the Tchoo or Yang-Kiang, the La-Kiang, and the Yuen-Kiang, which flow into the Yellow river. The Yuen and and the Pay-ho in the north, are unconing the blessing of the Great Being on his nected with the two great rivers. The labor and that of his people. Then, as former falls into the gulf of Canton, and the high-priest of the empire, he sacrifices the latter into the gulf of Pekin. These, a bullock to heaven, as the function of the sacrifices and innumerable other rivers. numerous canals, are of incalculable advantage to agriculture and inland naviga-The principal canal is the Imperial canal, 1400 miles long, which forms a water communication between Pekin and Canton, with an interruption of only one the whole field. The principal mandaday's journey. China also abounds in rans follow his example. The festival lakes, particularly the province of Houquang (which signifies the country of lakes). The Poyang-hoo, according to Staunton the largest lake in China, is, according to Du Halde, only 95 miles in circumference.—In a country of such vast extent, the climate must necessarily be very various. In the south, near the little progress. They have many fruit-tropic, the heat is excessive, but it is mod-trees, but have done little for their imerated by the influence of the periodical winds. The northern and western parts are much colder than the countries of Eu-

rope situated in the same latitude, owing to

the elevation of the land, to the nature of

very flourishing condition. The princi-

In the north-

nal production is rice.

144

manufacture woellen stuffs, and are the only weavers in the country. The honors conferred on agriculture by the Chinese government are generally known. Every year, on the 15th day of the first moon, the emperor repairs, in great state, to a certain field, accompanied by the princes and the principal officers, prostrates himself, and touches the ground nine times with his head, in honor of Tien, the God altar, a plough, drawn by a pair of oxen, highly ornamented, is brought to the emperor, who throws aside his imperial robes, lays hold of the handle of the plough, and opens several furrows over closes with the distribution of money and cloth amongst the peasantry. In the same manner the emperor again comes to sow the seed. In the provinces, the viceroys perform the same ceremony on the same day. In the cultivation of trees, the Chinese have made comparatively provement. Grathing is not common. Currents, raspberries, and, according to some, olives, do not grow in China. But nature has conferred on this country other treasures, such as the tea-plant, from the soil, which is filled with saltpetre, and to which the Chinese derive immense profthe mow, which, during the greatest part its, the camphor-tree, the aloe, the sugarof the year, covers the central Gountains cane, the bamboo, indigo, cotton, rhubarb, of Asia.—Agriculture, in China, is m a the varm-h-tree, soup-tree, tallow-tree, hme, wax-tree, and the li-tchi. The Chinese have all the domestic animals of Europe and America, amongst which the western provinces, which are too cold and too dry for its production, its place is supplied by wheat and other grain. hog is the most numerous. The camel is the usual beast of burden. The wild an-Yams, potatoes, turmps, beans, and a innals are the elephant, the rhipoceros, the . species of white cablage (petrai), me tiger, the musk-ox, several kinds of apes,. likewise produced. Arable land is cultithe deer, the wild boar, the fox, &c. vated without interruption, the practice Poultry abounds in China, particularly of fallowing being unknown. Even the Several sorts of birds are distinducks. 'steepest hills are brought into cultivation, guished for the richness of their plumage, and agificially watered. The manner in such as the gold and silver pheasants, and which the dwellings of the presentry are situated, not being collected into villages, the peacock with spurs. Great quantities of fish are found in the waters. The but scattered through the country, congold-fish are there, as with us, kept as an . wibutes greatly to the flourishing state of agriculture. There are no fences, nor ornament. Amongst the insects of China, the silkworm, which is found in all parts gates, nor any nort of precaution against wild beaute or thieves. The women raise of the country, and appears to be indigenous, is the principal. Of the mineral

productions our information is very immineree, and by a poll-tax on every person perfect. Silver mines are abundant, but between the ages of 20 and 60. The flee are little worked. The gold is, for Chinese army is very numerous, objects the most part, obtained from the sands of ing of about 900,000 men, but deel not the rivers in the provinces of Se-tchuen appear capable of resisting the irregular and Yun-nan; but gold and silver are Asiatic troops, much less European soland Yun-usn; but gold and silver are not coined. Tutenague is a metallic substance peculiar to China, which is used for the manufacture of vessels and utensils, and which some suppose to be pure zine, and others an artificial composition. thins produces a peculiar kind of coper't also usenic, much quicksilver (in translated by the term prince. These yun-nan), but little lead and tin. Of val-princes are bound to live within the prenable stones, it affords the lapis lexuli, the rock-crystal, the loadstone, and various kinds of murble. Of clays, the porcelain clay is the only kind we need mention. Salt is a profitable monopoly of the government.-The features and the shape of the skull of the Chinese prove their de-scent from the Mongols; but a residence of many conturies in a milder climate has softened their characteristic marks. A Chinese woman is proud of her beauty m proportion to the smallness of her eyes, the protuberance of her lips, the lankness and blackness of her hair, and the small-, ness of her feet. The last completes the Chinese idea of beauty, and is obtained by pressure and hindering the growth. By the men, corpulence, as the sign of an casy life, is regarded with respect. Leans people are considered void of talent. The higher classes allow the nails of their fingeis to grow, some on one hand, some on both, and dye their hair and heard-black. The Chanese possess the usual virtues and vices of a slavish, industrious and commercial people.—The government is: an absolute monarchy, but the mandarms and tribunals are permuted to make respecifial remonstrances to the emperor. The emperor calls hanself holy son of , heaven, sole guardian of the earth, and father of his people. He is obliged to occu-py himself constantly with the affairs of state. He has three wives, of whom only one bears the title and rank of empress. He resides, generally, in Pekin; in sum-mer, at Tchehol. Offerings are made to his image and to his throne; his person is worshipped; his subjects prostrate themselves in his presence. The emperor never appears in public without 2000 · lictors, bearing chans, axes, and other instruments characteristic of Eastern despotisme. The revenue is estimated at \$150,000900, and consists, chiefly, in the productions of the soil. It is raised by a land-tax, by duties on imports and exports, and on articles of internal com- partly to the want of intellectual commu-

diers.—The Chinese nobility is of two kinds, the dignity of the one being persoual, that of the other official. Of the former there are five degrees, the three first of which are conferred only on relacincts of the imperial palace. The personal nobility has precedence over the mandarins, or official nobility. The rank of the mandarins is indicated by the color of the luttons on their caps. There are of the lattons on their caps. There are likewise titular mandarins. There are, in all, from 13,000 to 14,000 civil mandarins, called governors, and 18,000 military mandarius. The former are divided into nine, the latter into five classes. The nine, the latter into five classes. highest body of officers in the empire is the council of the ministerial mandarius. These transact business with the emperor. "Subordinate central authorities are, 1. Li-pu (guard of civil officers), which proposes pardons to the emperor: 2. Ho-pu (mini-try of finance): 3. Li-pu (court of ceremonal); 4. Ping-pu (council of war); 5. Hong-pu (manistry of justice, including Kong-pu, or that of architecture). In every province, a mandarin is governor, with a council to watch over his actions and execute his commands. There are courts of justice in the different towns., The ceremonial dress of the mandarins is of embroidered satin, with a covering of blue craps. Badges, indicating the civil or malitary rank of the wearer, are embroultred in front and on the back. The tight to wear a peacock's feather on the. back of the cap is equivalent to a European order and is conferred as particular mark of favor. The pretended wisdom of the Chinese laws may be charactyrized in a few words:-they are good police regulations, accompanied with good lessons on morality. They give to the emperor, as well as to the mandarins, unlimited power over the nation, which considers blind obedience to superiors ats first duty. Immunerable veremonies perpetually remind it of the distinctions of runk. (See the Chinese Ceremonial, in verse, Macao, 1824.) In intellectual inprovement, this nation has long been stationary. This is partly owing to the love of antiquity common throughout Isla,

with other nations. This is prinbrided of letters and syllables, but of char-Ottet. (See Chinese Language and Litera-are, at the conclusion of this article.) Mecharical skill has been carried to great perfection among them; their industry in the manufacture of stuffis, porcelain, lackered ware, &c. is astonishing, and can fucius, and Fo), which was brought from only be compared with their own labors. India. The religion of the emperors of in digging canals, in the formation of gardens, levelling mountains, and other simi-Jar works. Hany of our most useful inventions are to be found among them. They printed books, before the art was invented in Europe, with characters carved on wooden tablets, which is their present practice. They also used the magnet beford its use was known to us; but they have remained far behind us in the art of navigation, on account of their ignorance of ship-building. A short time ago, a translation of a Chinese treatise on navigation, by one of their naval officers, was published, which showed an utter ignorance of this art. The monuments of China have, perhaps, been, on the whole, too much praised. Yet we must acknowledge our wonder at their great roads, their immense single-arched bridges, their pyrainidal towers, but, above all, at their great wall, called, in Chine . Van-li-Tehing (the wall of 10,000 La), which traverses high mountains, deep valley-, and, by means of arches, wide rivers, extending from the province of Shen-Si to Wanghay or the Yellow sea, a distance of 1500 miles. In some places, to protect exposed passages, it is double and treble. The foundation and corners are of granite, but the principal part is of blue bricks, cemented with pure white mortar. At distances of about 260 paces are distributed square towers, or strong shulwarks .- The national character is the result of their at-tachment to established customs. The manner of living is prescribed to each rank by invariable rules. The Chinese abstaur almost entirely from spirituous liquors: the use of tea is general. Their principal article of food is rice. Polygamy is permitted to the nobles and mandarms. The converor maintains a numerous barem. Women are kept in a sort of slavery. The pensant wokes his wife and ass together to the lough. The Chinese pay a kind of reinious worship to their ancestors, and perform certain ceremonies around their tembs. Respect toward parents is a duty inculcated by their religion and laws of this obscure period are the Kia (till . The primitive religion of China appears

to have been a branch of Shamanism, thetraily prevented by the difficulty of their foundation of which is the worship of the ture. This ancient religion has been supplanted by the doctrines of more madern sects. Among these, the principal are the sect of Cong-fu tre (Confucius) and of Leo-Kim or Tao-tse. The bulk of the nation has embraced the religion of Fo (see Conthe Turtar-Mantehoo dynasty is that of the Pulai-Lavia. (See Lavia.) For the propagation of Christianity in China, see Missions. The discovery of a conspiracy against the emperor, in 1823, gave rise to a general persecution of the Christians, which, however, terminated in 1824. Acconding to the accounts of the French mission in China, the number of Christians in that country in September, 1824, amounted to 46.287; there were 27 schools for Christian boys, and 45 for Christian girls. In the year 1820, two Chinese Christians were brought to Paris; they spoke Latm, as most Christians of that country do. The foreign commerce of China does not correspond with the extent and richness of the empire. 1806, the exports amounted to 45,000,000 pounds of ten. 13,000,000 of which were sold to the Americans, and 31,000,000 to the British: 16,000,000 pounds of sugar, 21,000 pieces of nankcen,3,000,000 pounds of tutenague, besides copper, borax, alum, quick-ilver, porcelain, lackered ware, einnamon, rhubarb, musk, and other drugs. These were exported in 116 ghips, of which 80 were English, 33 American and 3 Damsh. These brought to China rice (36,000,000 pounds), cotton, and various kinds of cloths, glass, fox, ofter and beaver skins, sandal wood, areca nuts, &c. The rade with Europe and North America is confined to 12 privileged merchants, called Hong merchants or Hannists, whose profits are immense. (See Hong.)—The oncient history of China is enveloped in darkness and fable. According to tradition, China was governed, for many millions of years, by the gods, Tien-Hoan-Chi, and the fabulous families of kings, 'Ti-Hoan-Chi. Kichu-Tohu-Ki. Amongst the latter was Fo-hi, the lawgiver of the Chinese, and U-ti, under whose family commences, with the reign of the celebrated Yau, the work called the Shu-king, from which the Chinese derive their early history. But the historical character of this book cannot bear criticism. The royal families 1707 B. C.), Shang (till 1122), Chew (till,

258). Wu-wang is invariably considered 479), Tain (fill 502) Long (fill 552). The southers the founder of this last dynasty, but the (fill 569), Soul (fill 619). The southers accounts of its establishment differ, Ac- empire (386 till 567) was kinned by the the preceding dynasty. According to others, Wu-wang came, with an army of civilization amongst the natives. After the establishment of this family, there is a long chasm in the historical records. This the Chinese writers fill with fables. Under : this dynasty is the Chew-kew, or period of fighting kings, who ruled over many little neighboring states, and were continually at war with each other (from 770 till 320 B. C.). At length, a Chinese hero, Chi-hoang-ti, of the princely house of Ting, made his appearance, in the age of Hannibal, and with him commenced the house of Tsin (from 256 till 207 B. C.). He extirpated all the petty princes of the branch of Chew, and united the whole of China (247). He built the great wall as a protection against the Tartars. The empire was again dismembered, after his death, under his son I l-shi, but was reunited, ten years later, by Lieu-pang. He adopted the new name of Hang, and founded the dynasty of Hang, which reigned till 4. D. 220, and was divided into the western and eastern Hang (Si-hang, from B. C. 217 to A. D. 21, and Tong-hang, from A. D. 24 till 220). The Tong-hang, from A. D. 24 till 220). The princes of this dynasty extended their conquests considerably to the west, and took part in the uffairs of Central Asia. The religion of Tao-tse provailed during their ascendency; and in the same period Judansm was introduced into China. In the course of time, the princes degenerated, and, under Hien-ti, China was divided into three kingdoms (220), which were again united by Wu-ti (280). He was the founder of the family of Tsin (265-420). The sovereigns of this family were had rulers. The last, Kong-ti, was dethroned by Wu-ti, founder of the Song dynasty (420-479). A short time before this, a separate kingdom was formed in the southern provinces (386), called The Songs U-tail or the five families. were likewise sovereigns of little worth. Whilst the whole aspect of Europe was changed by the general emigration of nations, two empires were formed in China, with the extinction of the dynasty of. Tsin-one in the north (386), and the other in the south (420); the latter of which was likewise called U-tai, or the empire of the five families. In the latter reigned successively the family Song (till,

cording to one account, the natives of the Goli Tartan, who conquered the northern interior dethroned Chew sin, the last of part of Chine, and was governed by four dynasties, two native and two foreign, viz. the Goei, of the race of To-pa, and foreigners, from the west, and introduced the Hew-Chew, of the race of Sien-pi. The dynasty of Goei reigned from 386 till 556 in three branches (Yuen-Goei till 534, Tong-Goei till 550, and Si-Goei or the western Goei, till 550; b. the dynasty of Pe-Tsi (the northern Tsi), from 550 till 577; c. the dynasty of Hew-Chew (the last Chew), from 557 till 581; d. the dynasty of Hew-Lang (the last Lang), from 554 till 581? from 554 till 587. Yang-Kien dethroned Hew-Chew (581), conquered the empire of Hew-Lang (587), of the Tsin (589), and founded the dynasty of Soui. The second. emperor of this dynasty, Yang-ti, was dethroned by Li-ien (617), who founded the family of Tang, which maintained its self"300 years, and resided at Sia-gan-fa, m Shen-si. During the reign of the first emperors of this line, particularly under Li-ien's learned son Tai-tsong I (626), China grew very powerful. But his successors give themselves up to pleasure, and were entirely governed by their cu-nucles. Internal distractions were the consequences. The last emperor, Tchaosmen-ti, was dethroned by Shu-wen, who founded the dynasty of Hehu-Lang (907). This, as well as the succeeding dynastics of Helm-Tang (923), Helm-Tsin (936), Helm-Han (946), Helm-Tchew (957), was of short duration. These are called *Helm*-U-tai, or the five last families. After this, China was torn by internal commotions, and almost every province had a separate ruler, when, in 1900, the people elected the able Shao-Quang-Yu emperor. He was the founder of the dynasty Sing, or Song, which reigned till 1279. His immediate successors rescribled bin, yet the country suffered considerably by the devastations of the Tartars. Under Yin-tsong (1012), the Chinese were forced to pay tribute to the Tartar Leso-tsang. Whey-tsong overthrew the empire of Leso-tsang (1101); but the Turturs possessed themselves of the whole of the north of China (Pe-cheli), 1125. Kao-tsong II was their tributary, and reigned over the southern provinces only. Under the emperor Ning-tsong, the Chinese formed an alliance with Genghis-Khan, and the Niu-cheng submitted to this great conqueror (1180). But the Mongols themselves turned their ar against China, and Kublai-Khan subjects, them, after the death of the last emisses d even.

ture and eciences flourished in China; governl of the emperors themselves were Rearried nieu. The Chinese authors call the Mongolian dynasty of emperors Yuen (from 1279 till 1368), and Kuhlai-Khan is by them called Shi-tsu. This was the first time that the whole of China was subjected by foreign princes. But the conquerors conformed themselves entirely to the Chinese customs, and left the laws, manners and religion of the country unchanged. Most of the emperors of this line were able princes. But after the death of Timur-Khan, or Temg-Tsang (Tamerlane), '1307, and still more after that of Yeson-Timur-Khan, or Tai-ting (1318), divisions in the imperial family frequently occasioned internal wars, which, weakened the strength of the Mongols. The Charge Chu took up arms against the voluntious Toka-mur-Khan, or Shunti, and the Mongolian grandees became divided among themselves. Toka-mur-Khan fled into Mongolia (1368), where he died (1379). His son Bisurdar fixed his residence in the ancient Mongolian capital Karakorum, and was the founder of the empire of the Kalkas, or morthern Yuen. This state did not remain long unuted; but, after the death of Tokoz-Timur (1460), ; each horde, under its own khan, became independent; in consequence of which, they were, with few exceptions, constantly kept in subjection to Chma after this period. Chu, afterwards called Tai-tsoo II. a private individual, but worthy of the throne, delivered his country from the foreign yoke, and founded the dynasty of Ming (1368 till 1644), which gave the empire 16 sovereigns, most of whom were men of merit. On the frontiers of the empire, the remains of the Niudshee Tartars, now called Mantchoos, still existed. The emperor Shin-tsong II gave them lands in the province of Leao-tong; and, when an attempt was made, soon after, to expelthem, they resisted successfully, under their prince Taitsu, and obtained possession of Leao-tong; upon which then chief assumed the title of emperor. He continued the war during the reigns of the Chinese emperors Quan-tsong and Tli-tsong, until his death. His son Tagood but weak prince, was the successor of Hi-tsong on the throne of China. On the death of Ta-tong, the Tarturs did not appoint any one to succeed him, and di-phinued the war. But in China, Li-

Ti-rang (1260). Under the Tang dynasty, (1644). Li-tohing's opponents called in the Mantchoos to their assistance. They got possession of Pekin, and of the whole empire, over which they still reigns Un-der Shun-chi, a child of six years old, the conquest of China was completed (1646— 47), and the present dynasty of Tatim, of Teim, or Tsing, was founded. He was succeeded, in 1662, by his son Kang-hi, who subdued the khan of the Mongola, took Formosa; and made several other additions to his empire. During the reign of this prince, the Christian religion was tolerated, but his son Yong-ching prohib-ited it in 1724. The son of the latter, Kien-Lung, continued the persecution against the Christians (1746-73). He conquered Cashgar, Yarkand, the greatest part of Songaria, the north-castern part of Thibet and Lassa, the empires of Miao-tse and Suo-Kin-tshuen, and extended his territories to Hundostan and Buchara. He peopled the Calmuck courtry, which the expulsion of the Songarians had rendered almost a desert, with the fuguive Torgots and Songarians from Russia. In 1768, he was totally defeated by the Bernese of Ava; nevertheless, the Chanese took possession of a fown in Ava in 1770, and returned to their country with the loss of half of their army. They were more successful against the Maiouse (mountaineers). Towards the end of his reign, his minister, favorite and son-in-law. Ho-Tchington, abused his influence over him. Kien-Lung was succeeded, in 1799, by his 115th son, Kia-King, 'His reign was frequently disturbed by internal commotionist for in China there Exist secret combinations of malcontents of all classes. In their nightly meetings, they curse the emperor, celebrate Priapian my steries, and prepare everything for the arrival of a new 1'o, who is to restore the golden age. . The Catholics, whom he favored, have lost most of their privileges by their inconsiderate zeal, and at Pekin, the presenting of the Christian religion has been strictly prohibited. Kia-King was succeeded, in 1820, by his second son, Tara-Kwang, whom the Russians call Dauguan. The embassy of lord Macartney (q. v.) was not more successful in attempting to change the policy maintained by the court of China for more than 1000 years, than the Russian entbassy of count Golowkin, or the more. recent one of lord Amberst, the British The Hong-Puan put an end to his life , world," which treate all monarchs as its ambassador, in 1816. The envoys were unable to form political or commercial. treaties with this "colestial empire of the

A 13 P. Street & Str & B. Notices relating to China, &c. (London, 1822) A history of China, translated from the Chinese of Choo-Foo-Taze, by P. P. Thoms, many years resident at Ma-cao, in China, was lately announced for publication. It is stated to commence with the reign of Fuh-he, according to Chinese, chronology, B. C. 3000, and to reach the reign of Min-te, A. D. 300, in-

cluding a period of 3300 years.
Chinese Language, Writing and Literature. The Chinese language belongs to through those sounds the ideas are com-that class of idions which are called municated to the mind.—The writing of .monosyllabic. (See Languages.) Every, the Chinese, indeed, if we consider only word of it consists only of one syllable. They may, however, be combined to-gether as in the English words sociome, neelfare; but every syllable is significant, and therefore is of itself a word. If the Chinese language were written, like our own, with ah alphabet, it would be found to possess comparatively but few sounds. It wants the comsonants b, d, r, v, and z. Every syllable ends with a vowel sound. The Chinese cannot articulate two consonants successively, without interposing a sheva, or English u short. pronounce the Latin word Christus in this manner, Kul-iss-ut-oo-suh. The number of syllables of which the Chinese language is composed is very small. 10cording to Remusat, it does not exceed. 252; but Montucci thinks there are 460. It is not, therefore, accurately known. But this number is quadrupled by four different tones or accents (some say five), of which an idea cannot be given by words. By means of these accents, the Chinese speak in a kind of cantilena, or recitative, which is not, however, much observed when they speak fast, in their ordinary conversation. It requires a nice ear to distinguish those varieties of tone. This language, consisting of monosyllables, is destitute of grammatical forms. The nouns and verbs cannot be inflected, and therefore the differences of tenses. moods, caries, and the like, are either left to be understood by means of the context. or expressed by the manner in which the words are placed in relation to each other, as in French, sage-femme and femme-sage. With all these deficiencies, if they can so be called, the Chinese understand each other perfectly well, and are never at a loss to express their ideas. Their extensive and varied literature is a proof of it; but this is generally escribed to their writing, which, it is said, expresses more than their spoken language. But we do not concur with those who hold this opin-13\* . . .

(See Staumon's Miscellaneous ion, We think that the stoken language relating to China, &c. (London, is fully adequate to the expression of every A history of China, translated idea, and that the writing enthusians with nothing to its force. The enthusiann with which some writers speak of the wonderful effects of the Chinese writings upon the minds of those who read them, has often reminded us of the scalar harpsichord of father Castel. characters, like all others, represent the sounds, that is to say, the syllabic sounds or words of the spoken language; and the number of their characters, and compare it with that of their words, would seem to possess a very great superiority. There are not less than 80,000 Chinese characters; but of these only 10,000 are in common use, and the knowledge of them is sufficient to enable one to understand almost every Chinese book. It was once thought that it required a man's whole life to learn to read and write Chinese; but M. Remusat, the celebrated profereor of that language in the royal college Thus they at Paris, has demonstrated by facts, that the Chinese may be learned in as short a. tune as any other idiom." The great number of these characters proceeds, in the first place, from the considerable quantity of homophonous words which exist in the Chinese. These are represented by different characters, as with us by different modes of spelling, of which the French words cent, cens, sang, sans, sens, sent, each having a different meaning, but all pronounced alike, are a striking example. Neither are homophonous words wanting in English, as bow and bough, great and grate, and many others. The Chinese characters, also, by being combined together, as it were, into one, express two or more words at the same time, and this. in a great degree, accounts for there being so many of them. The Chinese characters are all reducible to 214, which are called keys or radicals (in Chinese, poo), each of them representing one word, and each word an idea: By the analogy of those ideas the complex characters are formed—an ingenious contrivance, which facilitates very much the acquisition of the knowledge of them. Thus all the words, which express some manual labor or occupation are combined of the character which represents the word hand, with some other, expressive of the particular occupation intended to be designated, or of the material employed. This bas induced many of the learned, and even

Chinese literati themselves to mainthan that the Chinese writing is ideegraphic, and represents ideas in a manner unconnected with the spoken language; but this supposition is disproved by the fact that no two Chinese can read aloud from the same book without using the same words, which are precisely those which the characters represent. If it were otherwise, every person in reading would use different words, and the critten language, as it is called, would be translated, not read. It must be added, also, the eye. This shows that it is impossible for those who are ignorant of the Chinese language to read the Chinese writing, unless their own idiom should be constructed exactly on the same model with the 'rons of learning this curious idiotic. Chinese, have the same number of words, with the same meaning affixed to each, and the same grammatical forms. It has been repeatedly asserted that the Coreans, and other nations in the neighborhood of China, can all read the Chinese writing, and understand it, without knowing a word of the spoken language: but this appears impossible. It is more reasonable to suppose, either that they have adapted the Chinese characters to tight own idioms, or that the Chinese is among guage, which is generally acquired us a part of a liberal system of education. The Chinese characters are written from top to bottom and from right to left. The lines are not horizontal, but perpendicular, and parallel to each other. The Clanese literature is rich in works of every description, both in verse and in prose. They are fond of works of moral philosophy. but they have a great many books of history, geography, voyages, dramas, remances, tales and actions of all kinds. Several of the latter works have been lately translated in Ehgland and France. The books called the Kings, ascribed to their great sage Confucius, are now in a course of translation. The works of his successor, Meng-Tsen, have been lately published at Paris in the original, with an elegant Latin translation, in two octavo volumes, by M. Stanislas Julien. Other panelations from the Chinese are in progrise, both at London and Paris, under the salvoinge of the Asiatic societies of those capitals. The king of France has established a professorship of Chinese in the rival college at Paris. This chair is now filled by the parned Remusat, who has already formed several distinguished pu-

pils. The study of the Chinese language appears to be now pursued with great ardor in Europe, and with remarkable suc-cess. The reverend Mr. Morrison has published a Chinese grammar, and a dictionary of the same language, in 4 vols., 4to.; the former printed at Serampore, the latter at Macao, and both difficult to be procured. M. Rénnusat has published at Paris an excellent grammar of that language. The manuscript dictionary of futher Basil de Glemona was translated into French, and published at Paris, by that the Chinese poerry is in rhyme, and. M. de Guignes, under the patronage of " therefore addressed to the ear, and not to the emperor Napoleon, in the year 1813," in one thick folio volume, to which a valnable supplement has been since added by M. Klaproth. Auxiliary means are not now wanting for those who are desi-

CHINA WARF. (See Porcelain.) CHINCHILLA. (See Lanigera.) CHINESE STALE. (See Architecture.)
Caro: called by the ancients a Chiot. (Sec Scie.)

Corre was; a town in Upper Canada, on the Chappeway or Welland, 2 miles N. W. Vagara falls, 10 S. Quieenstown: This place is tiunous for a victory gained man it by the Imerican treops over the Braish, July 5, 1514.

Chippi was a river of the U. States inc them, as Latin is with us, a learned lan- 4he North-West Territory, which runs S. W. into the Mississippi ; Ion. 92" W.; lat. 43° 45' N.; length, about 300 miles.

CHIPPIWAYS: Indians, in the North-West Territory, on the Chippeway, in-Michigan Territory, and in Canada on the Univer. Number, according to Pike, 11,177; 2049 warrions. (See Indians.)

Uniquitos; a province of S. America. an Bacnos Avres, inhabited, in 1732, by 7. Indian nations, each composed of about 600 families. The country is mountainous and marshy; but the more fertile soils produce a variety of fruits without culture. The varilla is common, and a kind of coops is found, whose fruit is more like a melon than a cocon-nut. It lies to the south of Moxes.

CHIRAGRA Greek; from xia, the hand, and age, a service); that species of arthre, to, or gout, which attacks the joints of the hand (the wrist and knuckles) and hinders their motions. It gradually deprives the hand of their flexibility, and bends the fingers, distorts them, and impedes their action, by the accumulation of a calcareous matter around the sinews, which final-, ly benumbe and stiffens the joints.

CHIROGRAPH. (See Charter.) CHIROLOGY; the language of the fingers, or the art of making one's self understood by means of the hands and fingers. It is an important means of communication for the deaf and duml. ...

MISTRY, the pretended art of prognostirents maintain, that human inclinations. faults and virtues are designated in an infallible manner by the lines which divine Providence has originally drawn in the hands of all men. Traces of chiromancy are found in the writings of Aristolle, who long life if one or two lines run across the whole hand. The chiromances quote some passages of the Bible to prove that their art is founded on the divine decrees, as the following: - " And it shall be for a. sign unto thee upon thine hand, and for a memorial between thine eyes" (Exodus xui. 9); and; "He sealeth up the hand of every man, that all men may know his work" (Job xxxvii. 7). In the middle ages, chiromancy was cultivated; and, in the present age, the French chiromancer undame Lenormand found, as she states, travels to the different Larowean congresses. The books in which chiromancy is explained and taught are numerous; and, m order to give dignity to the art, it has been connected with astrology. The Gips ses are at present the principal professors of chiromancy, and people who have no finth in the art not unfrequently amuse themselves with their predictions.

Curreys son of Saturn and Philyra. Saturn assumed the shape of a horse, in this amour, to deceive his wife Rhea. The shape of Chiron, therefore, was haif that of a man, half of a horse. In point of fact, Ularon was one of the people He was celebrated called Centaurs. through all Greece for his wisdom and acquirements; and the greatest princes and horoes of the time—Bacchus, Jason, Hercules, Achilles, Æsculapus, Nestor, Theseus, Palamedes, Clysses, Castor and Pollux, &c .- were intrusted to him for education. Besides the other branches in which young men of rank were instructed at that time, they learned from him music and medicine. He was particularly skilled in surgery. When Mercules throve the Centaurs from mount Pelion, they took refuge with Chiron, in Malea; but their enemy pursued them even into this retreat, and unfortunately wounded his old teacher with a misdirected arrow. The speedy operation of the poison, in which the arrow had been dipped, rendered remedies

ore, or the art of making one's self united and chiran suffered the severest terstood by means of the hands and financial to means of the hands and financial to making one's self united and the severest to means of the hands and financial to mean the means of the hands and financial to mean the means of the means of the severest from the content of the means of the severest the means of the m among the stare, and became the constellation Segitterius.

CHIRONOMY (xuporopla, Greek; from xin. the hand, and whos, a rule); the science. which treats of the rules of gesticulation, which is a part of pantomime. The ancient orators recognised the importance of gesticulation as a means of giving exasserts, for instance, that it is a sign, of a pressiveness to a discourse. (See Gilbert Austin's Chironomia, or a Treatise on Rhe?

torical Delivery, London, 1806.) CHIVALRY (from the French chevalier, a horseman; in German, Ritter, which signifies likewise a rider on horseback). Poets still sometimes use chivalry for cavalry; but this word is generally employed to signify a certain institution of the middle ages. The age of chivalry is the heroic age of the Teutonic-Christian trilics, cord responding to the age of the Grecian heroes. This heroic period of a nation may be compared to the youth of an individusome eminent adepts in Paris, and in her all; and we find, therefore, nations, in this stage of their progress, distinguished by the virtues, follies, and even vices, towhich the youth of individuals is most prone-thirst for glory, enthusiasa, pride, indescribuble and undefinite aspirations after something beyond the realities of life, strong faith in virtue and intellectual greatness, together with much vanity and credulity. Chivalry, in the perfection of its glory and its extravagance, existed only among the German tribes, or those which were conquered by and mingled? with them, and whose institutions and civilization were impregnated with the Tentonic spirit. Therefore we find chiv. alry never fully developed in Italy, because the Tentonic spirit never penetrated all the institutions of that country, as it found a civilization already established, of too settled a character to be materially affected by its influence. We do not find much of the chivalric spirit in Greece, nor among the Sclavonic tribes, except some traces among the Bohemians and the Poles, who had caught a portion of it from the Germans. Among the Swedes. though a genuine Teutopic tribe, chivalry never struck deep root; but this is to be ascribed to their remote situation, and to the circumstance that they early directed their attention to navigation and naval warfare, which, in many ways, were unfavorable to the growth of the chivalric spirit; affording, for instance, compara-i

affiniting multipudes, or in the adventurous quests of the single knight, which formed so striking a feature of the chivalric age. Poets and prators are fond of declaring that the chivalric spirit is gone! The famous passage in Burke's Reflections is familiar to every one; but the man who goolly investigates the character of past times, and compares them with the present, will hardly come to the conclusion that our age is deficient in any of the qualities which constituted the glory of the age of chivalry. Their strength is the same; their direction only is changed. Is it courage which has departed? The soldier, who steadily marches up to the jaws of a battery, can hardly be considered less brave than the kinghts of former days, who cased their bodies in steel to meet far less formidable means of destruction. The late wars in Europe abound with displays of valor, which may compete with any recorded in history or romance the battle of Dresden, the emperor Napokeon (as Oldeleben relates in his account of Napoleon's campaign in Paxony ), being scated before the Pirna gate, and seeing the artillerists in a redoubt shrink from serving the cannon, because the Prussian riflemen shot every man who pr-sented himself, turned to his old guard, and said, "Show them how Frenchman is have in battle:" when some of the soldier- addressed immediately sprung upon the redoubt. and marched up and down, in full view of the enemy, till they were shot. Of chivafric self-sacrifice, we can hardly find a more striking instance than that of a Prosian officer of the corps of colonel Schill (q. ,v.), who, when his comrades were condenined to death at Wesel, by a French court-martial, for a imhtary expedition in contravention of the existing peace, refused the pardon which was proffered to him alone by Napoleon, and preferred to die with his fellow soldiers. Are we referred to the enthu-sastic self-devotion which crowded the plants of Palestine with the thousands of European chivalry, caper to shed their blood for the tomb of their Savior? We say the same spirit in our days has chosen a nobler direction: the advensurery who expect themselves to every peril in the cause of science and human Simprovement, the Humboldts, Chapperstons, Burckhardts, display equal heroism in a worthier cause. We would not govcan ourselves by so narrow a theory of utility as to refuse to acknowledge what was really great and sublime in the spirit

tively, little opportunity for that display of of chivalry, but we cannot admit that the courage and accomplishment in the eyes virtues of the chivalric age have vanished, because they now appear with less show turous quests of the single knight, which

To explain the nature and origin of chivalry, we must consider the character of the socient German tribes. The warlike spirit was common to them with other barbarous nations; but there were certain traits in their character peculiarly their own. Among these was their esteem for women. This is dwelt upon by Tstitus, and is sufficiently apparent from the early native German historians. This regard for the female sex was diffused by them chrough every country into which they spread, though with considerable difference in the forms in which it developed uself. In France, it became that refined gallantry, for which the nation has been so long conspicuous; in Spain, its assumed a more romantic and glowing character, desplaying much of the fire of Oriental feeling; in Germany itself, it became faithful and lender attachment to the wedded wife. Undoubtedly the Christian religion assisted in developing this feeling of esteem for the female sex in those times particularly by the adoration of the Virgin, which was taught as a part of it. The constant reverence of this derfied image of chastity self female purity must have had a great effect. We do not conceive, however, that the elevated condation of women can be referred entirely to the Christian religion, as we see that it line not produced this effect in the instance. of nations who have had no opportunity of authling the Tentone spirit; and many Asiate nations recognize that feature of this rel you, to which we have attributed so ratch efficacy, (namely the buth of the being whom they worship from a virginal and set keep their women in a very degraded condition, . We may be told, in answer to our claim of the peculiar regard for the female as a characteristic of the Tentonic tribes, that women were held in high esteem by the Romans. It is true that waver and mothers were treated with great regard by the Romans, and the hie-. tory of no nation affords more numerous instances of female noblemus; but this. estern was rendered to them, not as females, but as the faithful companions and patriotic methers of citizens. It had somewhat of a political cast. But this was not. the case with the Germans. There is another trait of the German character, which deserves to be considered in this connexion, which is very apparent in their hterature, and the lives of many individuso much excellence and so much extravi-game. These three traits of the Teutonic women, and their indefinable thirst for superhuman greatness, together with the influence of the feudal system and of the Roman Catholic religion, afford an explanation of the spirit of chivalry—an institution which, to many observers, appears like an isolated point in history, and leaves them in doubt whether to despise it as foolish, or admire it as sublune. The feudal system divided the Christian Teutonic tribes into masses, the members of which were united, indeed, by some politied ties, but bad little of that intunate connexion which bound men together in the communities of antiquity, and has produced like effects in our own and a few preceding ages. They still preserved, in a great measure, the independence of There was, however, one barbarians. strong bond of union, which gave consistency to the whole aggregate; we mean the Roman Cathohe religion, which has lest much of its connecting power, in pro-The influence of this religion was of great service to mankind during the ages of ignorance and violence, by giving coherency to the links of the social cham, which were continually in danger of parting. To this cause is to be ascribed the great uniformity of character which prevailed during the ages of chivalry. The foudal system, besides, enabled the gentry to live on the labors of the oppressed peasants, without the necessity of providing for their own support, and to indulge the love of adventures incident to their warlike and ambitious character. If we now combine the characteristics which we have been considering-a warlike spirit, a lofty devotion to the female sex, an undefinable. thirst for glory, connected with feudal independence, elevation above the drudgery of daily toil, and a uniformity of character and purpose, inspired by the influence of a common religion-we obtain a tolerable This view of the chivalric character. character half not yet quite developed itself in the age of Charlemagne. The courage exhibited by the warriors of his age was rather the courage of individuals in bodies. The independence, the individuality of character, which distinguish-

als we mean that indefinite thirst for so the effect knight who sought far and something superior to the residues of life, wide for adventures to be achieved by his that scheen, to use their own word, which is ingle arm, was the growth of a later pehardly admits of translation, which has glod. The use of the war-horse, which produced among them at the same time, formed so essential an instrument of the son of chivalry, was not common among game. These three traits of the Teutonic the Germans until the time of their wars race, their warlike spirit, their esteem for with the Huns. They were indeed according to their indesthable think indesthable their control and their indesthable thinks. quainted with it before, and Tacitus men-tions it in his account of Germany; but it was not in common use autong them till the period we have mentioned. After it was introduced, cavalry was considered among them, as among all nations in the early stages of their progress, much su-perior to infantry, which was, in fact, despised, until the successes of the Swiss demonstrated its superiority. In the 11th century, knighthood had become an evtablished and well-defined institution; but it was not till the 14th that its honors were confined exclusively to the nobility (q. v.). The crusades gave a more religious tarn to the spirit of chivalry, and made the knights of all Christian nations known to each other, so that a great uniformity is thenceforward to be perceived among them throughout Europe. Then armse the religious orders of knights, the knights of St. John, the templars, the Teutonic knights, &c. The whole establishment portion as other ties, there there is of kinghthood assumed continually a common civilization lavy gamed strength, more formal character, and, degenerate ing, like every human institution, sunk at last into Othxone extravagances, or frittered away its spirit amid the forms and punctilios springing from the, pride and the distinctions of the privileged orders of society. It merged, in fact, among the abuses which it has been one of the great labors of our age to overthrow. The decline of chivalry might be traced through the different forms which it assumed in different nations as distingly as its developement-a task too extensive for this work.

The education of a knight was briefly. as follows:-The young and noble stripling, generally about his 13th year, was sent to the court of some baron or noble kunght, where he spent his time chiefly in attending on the ladies, and acquiring skill my the use of arms, in riding, &c. This duty of waiting about the persons of the ladies became, in the sequel, as injurious to the morals of the page as it may have been salutary in the beginning. When advancing age and experience in the use of arms had qualified the page for war, he became an escuyer (esquire or squire). This word is generally supposed to be derived from caru or scude (shield? because, among other offices, it was the

pine's susiness to carry the shield of the sight whorh he served. The third and best rank of chivalry; was that of highest rank of curvay, was highthood, which was not conferred before the 21st year, except in the case of distinguished birth or great achievements. The individual prepared himself by confessing, fasting, &c.; religious rites were performed; and then, after promising to he faithful, to protect ladies and orphans, never to lie, nor utter slander, to live in harmony with his equals, &cr. (in France, there were 20 vows of unighthood) he received the accolade (q. v.), a slight blow on the neck with the flat of the sword, from the person who dubbed him a knight, who, at the same time, pronounced a for-mula to this effect: "I dub thee knight, in the name of God and St. Michael (or in the name of the Father, Son and Holy Ghost). Be faithful, bold and fortunate. This was often done on the eve of battle, to stimulate the new knight to deeds of vulor, or, after the combat, to reward signal bravery.

Though no man of any reflection would wish for the return of the age of chivalry, yet we must renigmber that chivalry exercised, in some respects, a salutary influence at a time when governments were unsettled and laws little regarded. Though chivalry often carried the feelings of love and honor to a fanatical excess, yet it did much good by elevating them to the rank of denties; for the reverence paid to them principally pre-, vented mankind, at this period of burbarous violence, from relapsing into barbarism; and, as the feudal system was unavoidable, it is well that its evils were somewhat alleviated by the spirit of chivalry. The influence which clavalry had on poetry was very great. The troubadours in the south of France, the trouveres in the north of the same country, the minstrels in England, the Minnesanger in Germany, sung the achievements of the knights who received them hospitably. (See Ballad.) In Provence arose the cours d'amour (q. v.), which decided the poetical contests of the knights. Amorous songs (chansons), duets (lensons), pastorul songs (pastourelles) and portical colloquies (sirventes) were performed. In Germany, the chivalric spirit produced one of the most splendid and sublime epics, the Nibelungentied. (q. v.) By the inter-scourse with the East, which grew up during the crusades, fairies, and all the yranders of enchantment, were introduced into the romantic or chivalric poetry. It is probable, however, that there existed

something of the same kind before the in-fluence of the East was felt; for instance, the stories of the enchanter Merlin. Chivalric poetry, in our opinion, begins, as Schlegel has shown, with the mythological cyclus of king Arthur's round table. The second cyclus is that of Charlemagne and his palading, his 12 peers, which remained, the poetical foundation of chivalrie poetry for many centuries. The cyclus of Amadis (q. v.), which belongs, perhaps, exclusively to Spain, does not rest on any historical ground. (For further informa-tion, see the article Chicalry, in the supplement to the Encyclopædia Britannica, written by sir Walter Scott, which contains many interesting facts, though the writer does not investigate very deeply the spirit of the institution. The article the spirit of the institution. Chevalerie, in the Encyclopedie Moderne, is full of valuable information. The preface to lord Byron's Childe Harold should not be forgotten. See also Heeren's Essay on the Influence of the Crusades, translated into Prench from the German: Büsching's Vorlesungen über Ritterzeit und Ritterwisen, Leipsie, 1823, 2 vols.; Memoires sur l'ancienne Chevalerie, pur Lacurne de Sainte-Palaye, Paris, 1826, 2 vols velle un constant de la const 2 vol-, with engravings; and last, but not least, Don Quixote. See also the mucle Tournament, and the other articles in this work connected with this subject.) We have dwelt so long on chivalry, as we think a correct view of it important to the understanding of many other subjects, and as some of our views may be new to . our readers.

CHLADNI, Ernest Florence Prederic, one of the most distinguished proficients in the science of acoustics, born at Witterberg, 1756, son of E. M. Chladenius, professor in the faculty of law at that place, received his first education in the royal school at Grimm**ic,** devoted himself afterwards at Wittenberg and Leipsic to law, and in the latter university was made doctor of philosophy in 1781, and, in 1782, doctor of law. After the death of his father, he abandoned the law, and devoted himself entirely to the study of nature, in which he had hitherto employed all him kisure hours. As an amateur of music, in which be received his first instruction at the age of 19 years, he observed that the theory of sound was much more neglected than the other branches of physics, and determined to supply this deficiency. The study of mathematics and physics, with reference to music, enabled him to present new views relative to the theory and practice of the aft. Since 1787, he

ists at Berlin. His principal composition, which is a classical work in its kind, is his Acoustics (Leipsic, 1802, 4to., with copperplates), preceded by the history of his discoveries in acoustics. (A French translation, revised by himself, appeared in Paris, 1809-Traité d'Acoustique.) He has also written Further Contributions to Acoustics (Leipsic, 1817), and Contribunons to Practical Acoustics and the Theory of Constructing Instruments (Leipsic, 1822). Chladni is the inventor of the cuplion and the clavicylinder. To make these instruments known, he spent 10 years in visiting the capital cuties of Germany. Holland, France, Italy, Russia, Denmark, and everywhere gained the esterm of connugateurs. He returned in 1812, to his native place, where he is conimmily employed in new researches. He also commenced examinations of the bolides, or fiery meteors, the phenomena of which, as the flame, smoke, noise, &c., have little in common with the electrical two treatises, On the Origin of the Iron Masses found by Pallas, and other similar Masses (Riga, 1794), and On Fiery Meteors (Vienna, 1819), I. that the stories which represent masses of stone as having fallen on our earth are worthy of credit; and, 2, that these masses and meteors are not the productions of our earth, and come from beyond the region of our atmosphere. (See Meteoric Stones.)

CHLORIC ACID. (See Chlorine.) CHLORIDE OF NITROGEN. (See Chlorine.)

GILLORINE. The discovery of this gas was made in 1770, by Scheele, and unmed, by its discoverer, dephlogisticated marine acid. The term dephlogisticated had exactly the same import as that of oxygenaled, soon afterwards introduced by Lavoirier. From its peculiar yellowish-green color, the appellation of chlorine (from xhapes, green) has been given to it. Chlorine gas is obtained by the action of muriatic acid on the peroxide of manganese. The most convenient method of preparing it is by mixing concentrated muriatic acid, contained in a glass flask, with half its weight of finely-powdered peroxide of manganese. On the application of a

has proved himself a profound naturalist, moderate heat, the gas is evolved, and by several works, relating, principally, to should be collected in inverted gas bottom and tone; e. g., his Discoveries in thes, filled with warm water. In order to Regard to the Theory of Sound (Leipsic, scomprehend the theory of this process, it 1767); Suggestions for presenting a better must be premised that municipal conter Explanation of the Theory of Sound, site of chloring and hydrogen. The a work dedicated to the society of natural-interest Redlin. His principal composition peroxide of manganese is composed of When these manganess and oxygen. compounds react on one another, the peroxide of manganese gives up a portion of its oxygen to the hydrogen of the muriatic acid, in consequence of which water is generated, and chlorine (the other ingredient in muriatic acid) is liberated. The method which is employed in the arts, and which is the most economical, is the following:—Three parts of common salt (muriate of soda) are intimately mingled with one of the peroxide of manganese, and to this mixture two parts of sulphuric acid, filluted with an equal weight of water, are then added. By the action of sulphuric acid on the muriate of soda, muriatic acid is disengaged, which reacts as before explained upon the peroxide of manganese; so that, instead of adding muriatic acid directly to the manganese, "the materials for forming it are employed. Chlorine is gascous under a common atmospheric pressure. It is twice and a ball heavier than atmospheric air, or its phenomena with which they have been specific gravity is 2.5. The gas has a yel-confounded. He eadeavored to prove, in lowish-green color. Of all the gases, it is the most insupportable in its action on the lungs. When pure, it occasions unmediate death if an animal is immersed in it; and even when largely diluted with common air, it cannot be respired with safety. It occasions a severe sense of stricture at the breast, which renders at impossible to" make a full inspiration. This continues for a considerable time after it has been inspired, and has often produced a permanently injurious effect. When thoroughly dried, by exposure to fused chloride of calcium, it suffers no change, though cooled to 40°. When prepared over water, however, so as to contain a quantity of aqueous vapor, it condenses on the sides of the vessel even at a temperature of 40°; and, if surrounded by snow or ree, it shoots into acicular crystals of a bright-yellow color, and sometimes two inches in length, which remain attached to the sides of the vessel. This solid is a hydrate of chlorine, and, when heated to 50°, it melts into a yellowish oily fluid. Chlorine is absorbed by water, in a quantity which increases as the temperature diminishes. At 50°, the water takes up about twice its volume. The solution has a yellowish-green color, and .

As odor is that of the gas itself. Its taste rather stypuc than sour, and the liquid, like the gos, has the property of destroy ing the vegetable colors. Hence it may be employed in bleaching. It is not changed by a boiling temperature. Solution of chlorine is decomposed, however, by exposure to the solar light; the chlorine attracts hydrogen from the water, forming muriatic acid, which remains dissolved, and pure oxygen is disengaged. Chlorine gas supports the combustion of a -tamber of inflammable sub-tances. lighted taper burns in it, though feebly, with a red flame; phosphorus takes fire when immersed in it: and a number of the metals, as antimony, arsenic, copper and others, if introduced into it in leaves or filings, burn spontaneously. Potassium and sodium burn vividly in it. In these care, the inflammable or metallic substances are beheved simply to unite with the chlorine. Chlorine combines with many of these bases in more than one proportion. When in one proportion, the compound is called a chloride; when in two, a bi-chloride, or a deuto-chloride, &c. Whenever a metallic chloride, which is soluble in water, is thrown into that fluid. it is conceived to be instantly converted thto a munate; the water present is dea muriate of an alkali, earth, or metalne oxide, as formed. Thus common salt, when dry, is a chloude of sodium: it is, no salt, containing neither acid nor alkali, but, whenever it is dissolved in water, it is immediately transformed into a salt: the sodium attracts oxygen and becomes soda, and the chlorine takes hydrogen and lascomes muratic acid, and murate of soda exists in the solution. When any of the compounds of chlorine, with inflammable substances or metals, are subjected to the action of a galvanic apparatus suffice ntly powerful to decompose them, the chloring is always evolved at the positive pare of the battery, and the base at the negative In this respect, and in its power of supporting combustion, chloring is analogous to oaygen. One of the most miportant chemical properties of chloring is displayed in its action on the vegetable colors. Many of them it entirely destroys: and even those which are the most deep and permanent, such as the color of indigo, it remeers faint, and changes to a light vellow of brown. This agency is exerted by it, both in its gaseous and its liquid form. The presence of water is, however, necessary to this. Hence, when the

gas destroys color, it must, probably, had enabled so to do by the hygrometric water it contains. It is accordingly found, that, when freed from this, it does not destroy the color of dry litmus paper. The destruction of color appears to be bwing to the communication of the exygen of the: water present to the coloring matter: the ter to form muriatic acid, and the evolved oxygen unites with the coloring matter, and, by changing its constitution, afters its. relation to light, so that the tint disappears. Berthollet applied this agency of chlorine to the process of bleaching, and with such success as to have entirely changed the manipulations of that art. The method of using it has been successively improvrd. It consisted, at first, in subjecting the thread or cloth to the action of the gas itself; but the effect, in this way, was unequally produced, and the strength and texture were sometimes injured. It was then applied, condensed by water, and in a certain state of chlution. The thread, or cloth, was prepared as in the old method of bleaching, by boiling first in water, and then in alkalme bye; it was then immersed in the dduted chlorine: this alternate apphention of alkali and chlorine was continued until the color was discharged. ' composed, its oxygen goes to the metallic. The offensive, suffice and odd of using it, however, and its hydrogen to the chlorine, and a rendered, this mode of using it, however, scarecly practicable; the odor was found to be removed by condensing the chlorine by a week colution of potash: lime, difthed in water, lying more economical, was atterwards substituted. Finler all these forms, the chloring by decomposing water, and causing oxygen to be imparted to the coloring matter, weakens or discharges the color, and the coloring matterappears to be readered more soluble in the alkalan solution, alternately applied, and of cours more easily extracted by its action. More lately, a compound of clifetime and hime has been employed; prefared by exposing slacked have to eldoring a gas: the gas is quickly absorbed, and the eldaride of lime, as it as called, being dissolved in water, forms the bleaching liquor now commonly opployed, and which possees many, advantages. In using it, the colored cloth is first steeped in warm water to clean it, and is then repeatedly washed with a solution of caustic potash, so diluted that it cannot injure the texture of the cloth, and which is thrown upon it by n pump; the cloth is then washed and steeped in a very weak solution of chlorale of lime, again washed, acted on by a. boiling lye as before, and again steeped in

performed alternately several times. The cloth is lastly immersed in very dilute sulphuric acid, which gives it a pure white color; after which it is washed and dried. Chloride of magnesia has been substituted, with great advantage, for that of lime, in whitening cloth for calico printing; the cloth, when lime is used, retaining a little of it, which, in the subsequent operation of clearing by mamersion in weak, which remains, and affects the colors when ( Moride of alumine has been employed to discharge the color of the Turkey-red dye, which resists the action of other chlorides and is only discharged by chlorine gas, by air operation very injurious to the workmen. Another important application of chlorine gas is that of destroying or neutralizing contagion. Acid vapors, sulphurous acid in particular, under the form of the funes of burning sulphur, had often been employed for that purpose, but chlorme, from the facility with which it decomposes the different compound gases that contain the elements of vegetable and animal matter, and which may be supposed to constitute normal effusia, is superior to any odder agent, and is now tonversally employed for the purposes of fitaugation. It is the only agent which can administer whelf in cases of asplictia from sulphureted hydrogen; and it has been sound useful, among such persons as are obliged 🐠 riequent places where contagious effluyin are constantly developed, to bothe the hand- and arms with its solution. Chlorine, united with Lydrogen, forms an important compound, called mirratic, or hadrochloric acid gas. (See Mariatic Jeid ) With oxygen, it gives use to four distinct cormounds, which are remarkable for the feeble attraction of their constituent elements, notwithstanding the strong athinty of oxygen and chlorine for most eleraentary substances. These compounds are never met with in nature. Indeed, they cannot be formed by the direct combination of their constituents; and then decomposmon is effected by the slightest causes. Notwith-tailding this, their union is always regulated by the lew of definite proportions, as appears from the following tabular view, illustrative of their composition.

Protoxide of chlorine	Chlorine				Organ		
			:}(;				8
Peroxide of chlorine							
Chloric acid			:ki			٠,	40
Perchloric acid							
VOL. III.	14			٠			

the solution; and these operations are Chlorine forms, along with nitrogen, one of the most explosive compounds yet known, and was the cause of serious accidents to M. Dulong, its discoverer, and afterwards to gir H. Davy. The chloride of nitrogen is formed from the action of chlorine on some salt of ammonia, chlorine and nitrogen being incapable of uniting, when presented to each other in their gaseous form. Its formation is owing to the decomposition of ammonia (a comsulphuric acid, forms sulphate of line, pound of hydrogen and nitrogen) by chlorine. The hydrogen of the ammonia it is dyed; while the sulphate of magnesia unites with chlorine, and forms muriatic is so soluble, that it is entirely removed. "acid, while the nitrogen of the ammonia, unites with chlorine, and forms muriation being presented in its nascent state to chloring, dissolved in the solution, enterinto combination with it. The chloride of introgen has a specific gravity of 1.653. it does not congeal by the intense cold produced by a mixture of snow and salt. At a temperature between 200° and 212°, it explodes; and mere contact with most substances of a combustible nature causes. detonation at common temperatures. The products of the explosion are chloring and tattogen. Three distinct compounds of \*hiorine and carbon have of late been made known by Paraday; but for an account of these, as well as of the chlorides of sulphur and of phosphorus, and the chioi - of onic wid gas, the reader is referred to the larger treatises on chemistry, it being incompatible with the plan of the present work to enter into those details which are not connected with the useful arts, or which are not absolutely necessary in order to afford a correct idea of the mode of reasoning and general theory of the science,\*

CHIORITT. (See Tale.)

Choc from the French choc, the violent neeting of two bodies), in military language, signifies a violent attack. It is generally applied to a charge of cavalry. To give such an attack its full effect, it is necessary. I. that the line be preserved unbroken, so that the attack shall take offeet at all points at the same time; 2, that the horses be strong and heavy, that the r momentum may be great; 3, that the

A letter of M. Daivergae to M. Gay-Lussac in the Ann de Chemie's recently published states the effect of chlorine as an anudate of hydroevan c acid. A cit, to which two drops of hydrocyanic acid were given through the lachrymal gland, was affected most violently by the ponon. While the affected most violently by the poison animal was in this condition, some chlorine was put into her mouth, and, one hour after, she was able to make a lew tottering steps, the next mora-ing the animal was quite well. It has also been bucly stated in the public journals that the Pench physicians have found chloring very effectual in preserving from the plague, if put on the baen, &c.

charge be made as swiftly as possible, not morely for the sake of the physical effect, but also of the moral effect which it has on the enemy. This swiftness, however, inust be attained gradually, increasing as the distance diminishes. The charge commences with a short trot; a long trot follows; at the distance of 150 paces, this is increased to a gallop; and 50 paces from the enemy, the horse must be put to his speed. A choc, whether successful or not, is of short duration.

CHOCOLATE. (See Carao.)

CHOCTAWS, or FLAT-HEADS: a tribe of Indians, residing between the Mississppi and the Tombigbee, partly in Ma-Their bama, but mostly in Missesuppi territory is bounded N. and N. L. by that of the Chickasaws. The country has a fertile soil, and is traversed by the upper waters of the Yazoo, Big Black, and Pearl rivers. Then number is estimated at about 20,000 or 25,000. They are a hardy, intropid and ingenious race, and have made, within the last 20 years, great advances in agriculture and other arts of civilized life They raise cotton, and manufacture it into cloth for their ordinary use, and often appear well clad in gaiments of their own making. In 1818, the American board of foreign imssions established a mission among the Indians at Elhot, on the Yalo Busha, a branch of the Yazoo; and, since that period, eight other similar establishments have been formed. (See Indians.)

Choczin (Chotschin), an important fronter fortress of Russia, on the right bank of the Dinester, opposite to Kaminice, in Bessarabia, with 25,000 unhabitants and a considerable trade. The people are entirely employed in furnishing supplies for the army. The Turks caused Choczin to be regularly fortified, in 1748, by French engineers; but it was taken by the Russians in 1730, 1769 and 1788. As the Pruth, in Europesis, at present, the boundary of the two empires, the suranion of Choczin renders it of great importance as an arsenal and place of rehideryous.

Chopowii ewi, Daniel Nicholas, a painter and engraver, born at Danaziek, 1726, received from his father in his leisure hours, his first amstanction in miniature-painting, which he practised with great assiduity, in order to support his mother, after the death of his father. His first trials excited the astonishment of connoisseurs. A little engraving, the Plag at Dice, in 1756, particularly attracted the attention of the academy of Berhin. Dur-

ing the seven years' war, he engraved various subjects connected with it; among others, the Russian Prisoners at Berlin, The history of the which is now rare. unhappy Calas gave him an affecting subject for a picture, which, at the desire of all who saw it, he engraved on copper. The impressions of the year 1767 are particularly esteemed. Almost all the plates to Lavater's Physiognomical Fragments are from his designs. He engrayed several of them himself. At last, scarcely a book appeared in Prussia, for which he did not engrave at least a vignette. The number of his engravings is more than 3000; but we must observe, that he was in the habit of making changes in his plates, after a number of copies had been struck off, so that all the comes of the same plate are not entirely, alike. He must be considered the founder of a new art in Germany-that of representing modern figures. He died, Feb. 1, 1801, at Berlin, where he was director of the academy of arts. He was universally esteemed for his integrity.

Chork, that part of the church where the choristers sing. In some old churches, the scats of the choristers, and other parts of the chori, are ornamented with admirable carved work. (See Architecture, vol. I, page 3435 cect. vi. Gothic

style.

Cuorsi eta, Emenne Francois de ; duke de Choseul et d'Ambose; nuneter of state of Louis XV; born in 1749. When count of Stamville, he displayed a brillight comage, and was rapidly promoted. His marriage with a rich herress, sister to the duchess of Gordant, and his intimate connex; a with the marchioness de Pompodoes, permitted him to indulge his ambit us hopes, which he never concented. He went as ambassador to Rome, and, in 1756, in the same capacity, to Vienna. In 1757, he succeeded the cardinal Betto- then manster of foreign affairs, who, trom chagrin at the opposition which he experienced, after the conclusion of the much-contested alliance with Austria, tesigned his office. The new minister quickly gained the greatest influence-He was made duke and peer, and administered, at the same time, the department of war. He afterwards resigned the depariment of foreign affairs to the count Chosenl, who subsequently became duke of Prashn. Without having the name, he was, in fact, prime numster, and conducted alone all the public affairs. From the beginning, he was unfriendly to the Je-mis, and united with the parliaments to effect their ruin. Meanwhile, the seven years' war continued, and France, after experiencing continual reverses, was compelled, by the exhausted state of her finances, to conclude a peace, in 1763, on untavorable terms. This misfortune could not be ascribed to the two ministers who, divided between themselves the administration of the state. Less able ministers would probably have been obliged to of the army, in consequence of the new make greater sacrifices. But the honors and demonstrations of favor with which Choisent and Prashin were loaded were sufficient to draw upon them, the buferest accusations. Their energies asserted that. they only prolonged the war to render themselves necessary, and repreached them for not having sooner concluded peace. Madame de Pompadour died in 1761, the dauphin in 1765, and the dauphiness in 1767. After spreading the most absurd and infamous reports concerning the death of the dauphin, to throw suspicious on Choiseul, his enomies, the duke d'Aiguillon, the abbé Terray, and the chancellor Maupeon, had recourse to the vilest instruments to effect his rum. They succeeded so far, that Louis XV. in spite of the representations of the nunister, and his own promises, degraded the royal dignity by introducing the counters di Barry (q. v.) at court. At first, the countess used already arts to insurate her-self into the favor of the muster. Her ambition was, to succeed to all the influence of madame de Pompadour. Choisent haughtily refused her proposals; but, laudable as was his conduct stowards the mistress, he ought not to have allowed himself to forget the respect due to his king and benefictor. He might perhaps, have persuaded him by compliance; his boldness only irritated him, and supplied his enemies with new pretexts for assuling him. The duchess of Grammont, the muniter's sister, always possessed great influence over him. She exercised it, on this occasion, without the least modcration, encouraged by the discontent of the nation, which favored the parliaments, then attacked by the chancellor Manpeon. The cause of the purhaments and the minister soon became one. The king was persuaded that Choiseul excited them to opposition. The attachment of Louis to his minister struggled, for some time, against the intrigues of his enemies; but, in December, 1770, he announced to him, in severe terms, his disgrace, and his banishment to Chanteloup. The departure of Choiseul resembled a triumph. His removal was considered, by the nation, a

public misfortune. He lived three years in exile, surrounded by a splendid and select society. On the death of Louis XV, he recovered his liberty, having been in exile just long enough to increase his reputation, and to confirm the general esteem in which he was held, While minister of war, after seven years of reverses, he had changed the organization tactics introduced by Frederic the Great. Although the displeasure of the old officers was excited, and many gave in their resignations, yet the necessity of the change was soon evident. The corps of artillery received a new form, and excellent schools were established, in which officers were educated, who rendered the French artillery the finest in Europe The same improvements were made in the corps of engineers. Choisenl devoted particular attention to the West Indies. Martinique was fortified anew, and St. Domingo rused to the highest degree of prosperity. When Choiseul and Praslin left the manstry, in 1770, the loss of the fleet had been repaired in less than seven years. It consisted of 64 ships of the line and 50 frigates and corvettes. The magazines were filled. Choiseul also concluded the fa. nly compact, which united all the sovereigns of the house of Bourbon, and placed the Spanish fleet at the disposal of France. This he recovered the respect which I rance had lost by her military reverses. His firmness supplied what was wanting to his country in real strength. He conquered Corsica without any open opposition from England Convinced of the importance of the independence of Pokind for the balance of Europe, he continually thwarted the ambitious designs of Russia, and involved it in a war with Turkey, which he would have supported more vigorously, had not the king himself opposed it. French officers were sent to the Polish confederates. to the Turks and the East Indian princes, whom he hoped to arm, as well as the Menerican colomes, against the English Produgal of his own fortune, he was frugal in the public expenditures. Lonis XV soon felt the loss of Choiseul, and exclaimed, on hearing of the division of Poland, "This would not have happened had Chorseul been here." After Bour-XVI ascended the throne, Choiseul was recalled, and received in the most honorable manner, but was not again admutted into the numetry. Notwithstanding his immense debts, he continued to support an expensive style of fiving, and

died in 1785, without children. His

nephew and heir was

CHOISETL-STAINVILLE, Claude Antoine Gabriel, duke of born 1762, peer of France before the revolution. He cungrated in 1792, after he had assisted the "flight of the king, in 1791, and been arrested and released. He raised a regiment of hussais, and served against In the sequel, he was ship-France. wrecked on the Prench const. taken, and remained four years in prison, while it was debated whether the laws against emigrants returning to France were up-The first consul releaspacable to him ed him, and caused him to be transported into a neutral territory, January 1, 1500. Li 1801, he gave lea permission to return After the restoration, Chor-: Cl'rame. sord was made hent nant-general. In the louse of peers, he joined the constitutional party. He has written Relation du De-7 of de Lor's XVI, b. 20 Jun, 1791, and ....e Hes. et Proces des Naufrages de Calais both a, the Memoires des Contemporains.

CHOISE 14 GOVERNIE, Marie Gabral Auguste, count de peer of France, born in 1752, adopted the name of Lingher atter his marriage with Mile de Gouther In 1770, he travelled in Greece and Asia His instructive journal of his march obtermed have a sect performandemy. 1754, he was ambresad it at Consomittos ple and tail with him several beauty men and artists, in whose society la occespard houself, down by bester hours, or harmed researches. In 1791, he was a pe pointed amous-ador to the court of Loudon, but renamed in Constantanopic, and a idressed off his notes to the brothers of Logis XVI, then in Germany. But, on the retreat from Champagne, this correspondence tell into the hands of the nejublicans, and, Sctober 22, 1792, the convention ordered his arrest. He thests. fore left Constantinoph, and repaired to Russia, where the empress granted him a pension, as an academic an the february, 1797, he was appointed provisories for by the emperor Paul I. In 1802, he has turned to France, and, in the following year, us a me tide r of the former academy. was adopted into the national restrict. and, more lately, into the academy itself. after its restoration. He died in the stin-mer of 1-17. The 1st part of the 2d volune of his Voyage pittoresque en Gree appeared in 1809, the 2d part in 1820, the 3d in 1524, gr. folio, with copperpletework was published in 1752. In 1-16, he read, in the leaderny of inscriptions, a

Dissertation bur Homere, directed against the German philosophers.

CHOLERA (Celsus derives it from 2014 and //w, literally, a flow of bile, and Tralhan from xolas and b.w. intestinal flux); diarrhan cholerica; felliflua passiq; a ge-nus of disease arranged by Cullen in the class neuroses and order spasmi. It is a parging and vointing of bile, attended with anviety, painful gripings, spasms of the abdominal muscles, and those of the calves of the legs. There are two species of this genus:-1. Cholera spontanea, which happers, in hot seasons, without any manifest cause. 2. Cholera arcidentalis, which occurs after the use of food that digests slowly and mutates. In warm changes, it is met with at all seasons of the year, and as occurrence is very frequent; but in Figure, and other cold chinates, it is most prevalent in the middle of summer, pertaularly in the month of August, and the violence of the disease has usually been greater as proportion to the intenseness of the heat. It usually comes on with soreness, pain, distension, and flambines in the stomach and intestines, succerted quickly by a severe and frequent yonating, and parging of bilions matter. heat, thus, a burned respiration, and frequent but weak and fluttering peaks. When the discusse is not violent, these symptoms the contractor for a day or two cease in a live bearing the patient in a debilitated and extrasted state, but where the discose proceeds with mach violence, great depression of strength en-- . - with fold, offenning sweats, geneader diff anciety a lairned and short respins tion, and incroughs, wale a sinking and ure\_dary of the pulse, which quickly steen that not ur tere metern death : forment's happens within the space of The appropriate of generally 21 moneobserved on dissection are, a quantity of blicas mater in the prima ria, the duets or the laser related and distended. Secerd of the vise in have been found, in some coses, displaced, probably by the you it yount up. In the early period of to disease, who title stoughly is not much exhausted, the object is, to less in the ities tation, and include the discharge of the lide, by tepid demakent liquids, frequent ly administered. It will likewise be usetal to procure a determination to the surtace, by forcentations of the abdomer, by , the toet-hath, or even the warm-both. But where the symptoms are impent, and the patient appears rapidly sinking from the continued vointing, violent pain, &c., it is necessary to give opium freely, but in a small bulk, from one to three grains, or even more, in a table-spoonful of linseed infusion, or with an effervescing saline draught, which must be repeated at short intervals, perhaps every hour, till relief be obtainell. Sometimes, where the stomach could not be got to retain the opnim, it has answered in the form of clyster; or a Imment containing it may be rubbed into the abdomen; or a blister, applied over the stomach, may lessen the irritability of that organ. Afterwards, the bile may be allowed to evacuate itself downwards; or saild aperients, or clysters, given, if necessary, to promote its discharge. When the argent symptoms are relieved, the strength must be restored by gentle tomes, as the aromatic bitters, calumba, and the like. with a light, mitritious diet: strong toast and water is the best drink, or a little burnt brandy may be added, if there is much languor. Exposure to cold must be arefully avoided. The abdonien and the feet, particularly, must be kept warm, and great attention is necessary to regulate the bowels, and procure a regular discharge of bile, lest a relapse should happen. It, will also be proper to examine the state of the abdomen, whether pressure give pain at any part, because inflammation in the prima rea is very hable to supervene. often in an insations manner. Should that he the case, weehes, blistering the part, and other suitable means, must be promptly resorted to.

Chorresters. Actor, a Ureach mame for the acid formed by the muon of natic seid and the fat matter of the human bil-

any calcule.

CHOLESTERINE. (See Calculus)

Chollyme (Greek,  $\chi(m_0)$ ), the larm embus, also called skazon, from  $\gamma(n_0)$  of full, or rersus Hipponarticus, because the sarist Hipponax of Uphesus made use of it, er perhaps invented it. The cholambus is an ambie trumeter, the last foot of which, instead of being an ambus, is a toche e or spondee, which gives it a larne anotion, as, for instance, Martial I. (epsig, 3)—

Cur in theatrim, Catosevere, venesis, An ideo tan, an yeneras, in exites?

We perceive, from the construction of the chohambus, that it may be applied with advantage to produce a conne effect. The Germans have happily initiated this verse, as well as all other ancient netries. An instance of a German chohambus is—

Der Chohambe schemt ein Vers für Kunstrahter CHOLULA; a town of Mexico, in Puebla; 60 miles E. of Mexico; lat. 1992 N., Ion.

98° & W.; population, 16,000. It was formerly a city of Anahuac, containing, in the time of Cortes, according to his account, 40,000 houses, independent of the adjoining villages or suburbs, which he computed at as many more. Its commerce consisted in manufactures of cotton, gerns. and plates of clay; and it was much famed for its jewellers and potters. With respect to religion, it may be said that Cholula was the Rome of Anahuac. The surprising multitude of temples, of which Cortes mentions that he counted more than 400, and, in particular, the great temple erected upon an artificial mountain, which is still existing, drew together innumerable pil-giums. This temple, which is the most ancient and celebrated of all the Mexican religious monuments, is 164 feet in perpendicular height, and, at the base, it measures, on each side, 1450 feet. It has four stories of equal height, and appearto have been constructed exactly in the " direction of the four cardinal points. It is built in alternate layers of clay and backs, and is supposed to have been used both as a temple and a tomb.

CHORAL (derived from chorus): a term applied to vocal music, consisting of a combination of bifferent melodies, and intended to be performed by a plurality of suggers to cach part; as choral anthom, choral service. In Germany, this term is applied to the music of hymnis, in the composition of which the Germans are so

much distinguished

Chosp (from the Greek x<sub>00</sub> m an intesbne), in modern music; a combination of two or more sounds according to the laws of harmony. The word chord is often used in counterpoint; as fundamental chord, an idental, anomalous, or equi-rocal, transont chord.

 Choregraphy: an invention of modern times: the art of representing dancing by signs, as singing is represented by notes It points out the part to be performed by every dancer—the various motions which to long to the various parts of the music, the position of the feet, the arms, and the body, &c. The degree of swiftness with which every motion is to be performed may be thus indicated, by which all becomes as intelligible to the dancer as a piece of nuisic to the musician. Drawings to assist the factionar, by designating the position, motion and evolutions of troops, have also been called choregraphical drawings.

CHORISMES, in metre; a foot compounded of a trochee and an isinbus. (See Rhythm.)

14 \*

CHOROGRAPHYS the description of a single district, in contradistinction to geography (the description of the carth). tert of drawing maps of particular districts

is also called *chorography*.

CHORUS, in the drama. This was, originally, a troop of singers and dancers, intended to heighten the pomp and soleru-This, without doubt. nity of festivals. was at first the purpose of tragedy and comedy, of which the chorus was originally the chief part, in fact, the basis. In the sequel, it is true, the chorns became only an accessory part. During the most flourishing period of Attic tragedy, the chorns was a troop of male and female personages, who, during the whole representation, were bystanders or spectators of the action, never quitting the stage. In the intervals of the action, the chorus chanted songs, which related to the subject of the performance, and were intended either to augment the impression, or to express the feeling of the andience on the course of the action. Sometimes it even took part in the performance, by observations on the conduct of the personages, by advice, consolation, exhortation or dissuasion. It usually represented a part, generally the oldest portion of the people, where the action happened, sometimes the counsellors of the king, &c. The cherus was sin indispensable part of the representation. In the leginning, it consisted it a great animber of persons sometimes as many as 50; but the number was afterwards limited to 15. The exhibition of a chorus was in Athens an honorable civil charge, and was called choregy. The leader or chief spoke in the name of the rest, when the cherus participated in the action - Somestimes the chorus was divided into two parts, who sung alternately. The divisions of the chorus were not stationary, but moved from one side of the stage to the other; from whe hereumstance the names of the portions of verse which they recated, strophe, antistrophe and epode, are derival. But it cannot be determined in what man ner the chorn-sing It is probable that it was in a soft of solenin resitative, and that their melodies, if we may call them so, consisted in unisons and octaves, and were very simple. They were also accompanied by instruments, perhaps flutes. With the decline of ancient tragedy, the chorus was omitted. Some tragedians of the project age, of whom Schiller was the first (see his prologue to the Bride of Messina) have attempted to revive the ancient chorus.

Chorus, in music, in its general sense, denotes a composition of two, three, four, or more parts, each of which is intended, to be sung by a plurality of voices. It is applied, also, to the performers who singe those parts. These choruses are adapted to express the joy, admiration, grief, adoration, & c., of a multitude, and sometimes produce much effect, but are very difficult

for the composer.

CHOSROFS I, king of Persia, succeeded to the throne in 531. His memory is still, venerated in the East, and his virtues obtained him the titles of the Magnanimous At his accession to the and the Just. crown, Persia was involved in a war with Justiman, to whom Chosroes granted a perpetual peace, on the payment of a large sum of money. But, in 540, Chosroes novaded Syria, laid Antioch in ashes, and returned home laden with spoils. After several other victorious expeditions, he invaded India and Arabia, renewed the war with Justin, the successor of Justinian, whom he compelled to soher a truce, but was, soon after, driven back across the Euphrates by Tiberms, the new emperor, and the Romans took up their winter quarters in the Persian provinces. Chostoes died in 579 His love of justice sometimes led him to nots of cracky; but he encouraged the ares, founded academics and made a con-siderable proneiting in philosophy himself. His repetation obtained ban a visit from seven sages of Green, who still adhered to the pegan religion, and, in a treaty with Justinoen, by required that they should be excript from the penalties enacted against the whose entired to favor paganete. of a chorus was called coraphans, who Person fastorines sembe to him the compiction of the great wall of Jahouge and Megogue, extending from Derhent along tin Person trouters.

Cue nors II, grandson to the preceding, ase inded the throne in 590, and curred his arms into Judea, Libya and Egypt, and made horself master of Carthage 617, he reduced Herachus, the Roman emperor, to solicit a peace, which he retused to grant, except on condition of los renonneing the crueified God, and worshipping the sun. Herachus, deriving courage from despair, penetrated into the Persian empire, and pillaged and burned the palace of Chostors, who was dethron ed by his own son, and cast into prison. after witnessing the massacre of 18 of his sons, and suffering every indignity. His sufferings were terminated by his death, m 624.

Chot and, in the French revolution; the meurgents on the right and left banks of the Loire. The name was properly applied to the royalists on the right bank of the Loire, in Bretague, Anjou and Maine. The principal theatre of the war formed mearly a square, the angles of which are the cities of Nantes, Angers, Mayenne and Rennes; but the excursions sometimes extended to the coast, to the city of L'Ori-The origin of the word Chouans is not known. Some derive it from the name of the sons of a blacksmith, who first excited the insurrection in that quarter; others from a corruption of the word chat-huant (sereech-owl). Accord-. ing to the latter, there was a horde of smugglers, who, before the revolution, secrefly exported salt from Bretagne into the neighboring provinces, and whose signal was the cry of the screech-owl. The revolution broke up the trade of these men, most of whom had no other resource. Accustomed to a vagabond life. they wandered through the country, committing depredations, and were gradually joined by others of a similar character. At first, murder and pallage was the chief object of these wietches, but they afterwards united with the Vendeans (see Findet in defence of monachy and religion. and shared their fate. Since the return of Lons XVIII, several of the chiefs of the Chouans have been honorably rewarded for their former services.

Chough, or Chouch (chouchs, Prench). the trivial name of a species of crow (corrus monedula, L.i. It is about the size of a pigeon, and has a sharp cry (so nearly ominvorous, except that it does not feed upon carrion, is of a dark ash color about the neck and under the belly, though frequently entirely black. The choughs live together in large flocks, and make then nests in steeples, old towers, or in large and lofty trees. Then manners are very similar to those of the rooks, with which they are sometimes seen flying in company. They are exceedingly yighlant in guarding their nests and young from birds of prey, which they attack and drive off with great vigor whenever they approach their viemity.

Chotma, Shuma, or Shusta: a Turkish fortress in the mountains of the Balkan. (q. v.) Varna (q. v.) and Choumba are called, on account of their great military importance, the gates of Constantinople. The town of Chounda, properly so called, is nearly surrounded by a natural rumpart, consisting of a portion of mount Hermis, or the Balkan. The steep slopes of this great bulwark are covered with detached rocks and close, thorny

husbes. The nature of the ground makes it a very advantageous position for the Turkish soldier, who, when sheltered by the inequalities of the ground and a few entrenchments, displays great resolution and address. The town is about a league in length and half a league in breadth, and may contain from 30,000 to 35,000 souls. The fortifications are rudely constructed. but its situation in the midst of a vast natural fortress, capable of contaming an immense army, with its magazines, &c., secures it from the enemy's artiflery. The air is very healthy in the elevated parts of the Balkan, and in the narrow valleys which he between its ridges. On the other hand, there cannot be a more unhealthy country than that which extends from the Balkan to the borders of the Dambe and the Bruth. This difference between the chinate of the mountains and that of the plain is the most effectual defence which nature has given to Chounda. In the late war between Russia and Turkey, . it was be-neged by the troops of the former power from July 20, 1828, until Oct. 25, of the same year, when they retired, after the conquest of Varna, Oct. 11. On the 11th of June, 1829, a decisive victory was gained by the Rossians over the Turks, not far from Choumla. The grand vizier commanded the Turks, who are said to have lost 6000 killed, 1500 prisoners, and 60 pieces of cannon, with large quantities of ammunition and baggage. The loss of the Russians amounted only to 1400 killed and 600 wounded.

Chrism (from the Greek volepo, salve), the holy oil prepared on Holy Thursday by the Catholic bishops, and used in baptism, confirmation, ordination of priests, and the extreme unction. Hence the ham Christ, the anomited.

• Chris r (Gr. No cro., the anomited). Messiah, from the Hebrew, has the same signification. (See Christianity, and Jesus.)

Christ, Pictures of Legends exist of a portrait of the Savior, which king Abgarus of Edessa is said to have possessed. The was miraculously impressed by the Savior on a napkin which he placed upon his face, and afterwards sent. to the king. The handkerchief of St Veronica (Bereince) is said to have also contained a portraif of Christ impressed in a signlar way. A picture of Christ. taken by St. Luke, is likewise mentioned In a letter, evidently spurious, which Len tulus, the predecessor of Pilate, is said to have written to the Roman senate, Christ is described as being of a handsome. manly stature and countenance. Among

the existing representations of Christ the most ancient is in a basso-relieve of marble, on a sarcophagus, of the 2d or 3d century, in the Vatican. Christ is there exhibited as a young man without beard, with Roman features, flowing and slightly curled hair, wearing a Roman toga, and seated upon a curule chair. In the same place, there is another Christ, of the 4th century, with an oval face. Oriental features, parted hair, and a short, straight beard. This representation was the model which the Byzantine and Italian painters followed until the time of Michael Angelo and Raphael. Since the 16th century, the Italian school has generally taken the heads of Jupiter and Apollo as the models for the pictures of Christ. Different nations have given his image their own characteristic features. The head of Christ has become the highest point of the art of painting among Christian nanons; and men of the greatest genus have labored to imbody their conceptions of his drymity, the umon of the different virtues of his character, his meckness and firmness and the full perfection of his Godlike nature. The representations of the Savior by Titian, Leonardo da Vinci, Raphael, &c., are among the sublanest productions of modern art. Christis head is, for the modern arist, what the head of Jupiter or Apollo was for the ancient. with this difference, however, that it has become more especially the ideal of the painter, whilst the others principally furin-hed subjects for the genus of the sculptor; and this cucumstacce shows the difference in the character of the two periods of air, which must, of course, by meet apparent in their highest productions. "Some of the most elevated expressions of the countenance of the Savior, c. g. the glowing love of his divine soul, cannot be well represented by the marble. There exist, however, excellent statues of Clarist. The two best of modern times are that of Thorwaldsen at Copenhagen, and that of Dannecker at Stuttgart.

CHRIST-CHURCH COLLEGE (See Or-

CHRIST'S HOSPITAL (generally known by the name of Blue coat school, the title having reference to the costume of the children educated there; a school in London, founded by Edward VI, for supporting poor orphans. At the same time St. Bartholomew's hospital was founded, for the wounded and diseased, and Bridewell was a signed as a place of confine ment for vagabonds. Charles II connectare generally from 1000 to 1200 boys and girls at this establishment, receiving instruction, board and clothing. The great hall at Christ's hospital is remarkable for

some very fine pictures.

CHRISTIAN II, king of Denmark, born at Copenhagen, 1481, was educated with httle care. While yet a youth, his violent character led him into great extravagances. King John, his father, punished hun severely, but in vain. In 1507, he was called to Bergen, to suppress some seditions movements, where he conceived a violent passion for a young Dutchwommi, named Dyveke, whose mother kept an mn. Dyveke became the mistress of Christian, who allowed her, and particularly her mother, an unlimited influence over him. He was viceroy in Norway, until the declining health of his father recalled him to Copenhagen. After he had ascended the throne, he married, in 1515, Isabella, sister of Charles V. He afterwards remonstrated with Henry VIII of England, on account of the paracies commuted by the English ships, renewed the treaties which had been made with the grand-duke of Moscow, and endeavored to deprive the Hanse towns of their commerce. The hopes which this conduct excited among his subjects were soon annihilated by the horrible scenes taused by the death of Dyveke. The re-lations of Torbern Ove, governor of the castle of Copenhagen, were accused of having poisoned her. Ove acknowledged a former passion for her, and the king ordered him to be beheaded. Several other executions spread horror through the whole langdom. Christian hated the rebility, and protected the commons and the peasantry against their oppressions. In 1546, a papar legate arrived in the Norte. in order to dispose of indulgences. Christian received him, hoping that he might be useful to him in Sweden, in obtaining the crown, at which he was then aimin-The Swedes were divided into several parties. Gustavus Trolle, archbishop of Upsal, a sworn enemy of Stenon Sture. administrator of the kingdom, had secretly united himself with Christian; but the Ewerlish states protected State, dismiss d Trolle, and caused has eastle to be demolished. The nuncio, who arrived during these events in Sweden, was gained over by Stare, discovered to him the plans of Christian, and justified the Swedes to the pope against the charges of Trolle Christian finally arrived at Stockholm in 1518, for the sake of an interview with ed a mathematical school with it. There—the administrator, receiving, for his own

security, six hostages from the first fami-When these hostages, among whom was Gustavus Vasa, arrived at the Danish flect, the faithless monarch treated them as prisoners, and returned to Denmark. He appeared in Sweden, in 1520, in the middle of winter, at the head of an army. The Swedes were besten at Bogesund, Jan. 19, and Sture was mortally wounded. The Danes pursued their advantage. Trolle presided over the assembly of the states-general at Upsal, and proposed to them to acknowledge Christian for their king. Although many were disinclined to the timon, they were, nevertheless, \* obliged to subjuit to it. A general aninesty was proclaimed, and all hastened to profit by it. The capital, to which the widow of the administrator had repaired, diered some resistance As soon as the en was open, Christian appeared with ins fleet before Stockholm, which did not -arrender to him. The summer was passing away: his provisions were nearly exhausted; his troops murmured. At last, he resolved to send Swedish messengers to the inhabitants. His promises, aided by famine, effected what his arms had not tion able to accomplish. The gates were opened to him. He promised to maintain the liberty of Sweden, and to forget the past. He arrived at Stockholm near the end of October, demanded from the bishops and senators an act acknowledging turn as their hereditary king, and caused turnselt to be crowned, two days after, in Trolle. He bestowed the honor of amphiliped only on foreigners, and dedated that he would confer this dignity on no Swedish subject, because he had conquered the country by force of arms In spite of the general consternation, he eidered public rejoicings, during which we knew how to cam the favor of the andmide. He determined to strengthen the royal authority in Sweden, and to ef-Set his purpose by the annihilation of the ust families. His advisers differed only as to the means. Finally, Slagbock, the king's confessor, reminded him of the excommunication of the enemies of Trolle, and added, that, though, as a prince, he might forget the past, he ought to extirpute the hereties, in obedience to the commands of the pope. Accordingly, Trolle demanded the pum-liment of the hereties; the king appointed commissioners before whom the accused appeared. Christma, the widow of the administrator, was among them. To yindicate her husband's memory, she produced the decree of the senate passed in 1517. Christian

obtained possession of it, and formed from it his list of proscriptions. The accused were declared guilty, and 94 victims were executed in the presence of the king. These bloody scenes cominued in the capital as well as in the provinces. Christian justified himself by the public declaration, that they were necessary for the tranquillity of the kingdom. He then returned to Denmark. His way was marked with blood: he garrisoned all the citie-, and committed the same cruelties in Denmark. He soon after went to the Netherlands, to request the assistance of Charles V against Frederic, duke of Holstein, his uncle, and against the inhabitants of Lubeck, who were always ready to assist the Swedes. On his return to Copenhagen. he found all Sweden in arms. Slaghock's tyranny had excited a general revolt. Christian gave him the archbishopic of Land, but soon after caused him to be burnt alive, in order to appeare the pope, who had sent a legate to Denmark, to examine into the murder of the bishops at Stockholm. In order to reconcile the pope, he altered every thing in the laws which favored Lutheramsin, for which he had previously shown much inclusation. Meanwhile Gustavus Vasa escaped from prison, and ruised his standard against the Danes. The states-general, assembled at Wadstena, declared that Christian had forfeited the Swedisherown. The garrison of Stockholm revolted on account of the want of pay. Christian, exasperated by these events, ordered the Danish governors to execute all the rebels. This measure hastened his rum. Norby still held Stockholm, Calmar and Abo, three places which were considered as the keys of the kingdom, but he was soon harassed by the inhabitants of Lubeck, who even made an attack uponethe coasts of Den-Christian, to revenge himself, commenced negotiations with the duke of Holstein, but they were soon interrupted by his own violence. Meanwhile, he published two codes restricting the privi leges of the clergy, and extending the rights of the peasantry. They contained many wise laws, which are still in force, but mixed with others which caused general discontent. The nation complamed of the debasement of the currency, and the insupportable burthen of the taxes. The bishops and senators of Jutland, per certing the disposition of the people. formed the plan of revolting against the king. About the end of 1522, they renonneed their allegiance, declared Christran to have forfered his rights, and offered

the crown to Frederic, duke of Holstein. The king, who suspected their designs, summoned the nobility of Jutland to Callundborg, in Zealand; and, as none obeyed the call, he summoned them anew in 1523, to Aarhuus, in Jutland, whither he repaired himself. His arrival compelled the conspirators to hasten the execution of their plans. They assembled in Viborg, and adopted two acts; by one of which they deposed the king, and by the other invited Frederic to take possession of the throne. A civil war was on the point of breaking out, when Christian abandoned his kingdom. In April, 1523, he left Denmark, and took the queen, his children, his treasures, and the archives of the kingdom, on board the fleet. A storm dispersed his ships, threw hun upon the coast of Norway, and, after the greatest dangers, he reached Veere, in Zealand. Charles V contented himself with writing to forbid Frederic, the nobility of Jutland, and the city of Lubeck, to act against Christian. The latter had, meanwhile, raised an army and equipped a fleet, and landed at Opslo, in Norway, in 1531, But his troops suffered new losses. Being attacked in his camp by the Danish and Hanseatic fleet, he shut himself up in the city, and his vessels became a prey to the Deprived of all resources, he flames. proposed a treaty to the Danish generals, who finally granted him a safe conduct, permitting him to repair, in the Danish fleet, to Copenhagen, for the purpose of a personal interview with Frederic. In July, 1532, he arrived before Copenhagen. But Frederic rejected the treaty, and the senate ordered the imprisonment of Chris-He was accordingly conveyed to the castle of Sonderburg, in the island of Alsen. He there passed 12 years in the rociety, at first, of a dwarf, and afterwards of an old invalid, in a tower, the door of which was walked up. A stone table is still shown, around the edge of which is a line worn by the hand of Christian, whose sole exercise consisted in walking round it, with his hand resting on the sileface. He was totally abandoned. When Christian III ascended the throne, in 1543, his condition was improved, by virtue of a treaty with Charles V. He hved, from 1546, at Callundborg, with a fixed income, and died at this place, Jan 21, 1559. His wife, Christina, a professor of Lutheranism, faithfully shared his imsfortunes until her death, in 1526. He had three children-John, who died at Rausbon in 1532, at the age of 13 years; Dorothear who married Frederic, the elector

palatine; and Christina, who married Francis Sforza, duke of Milan, and, after his death, Francis, duke of Lorraine. It ought not to be forgotten, that Christian's cruelty was, in some degree, owing to the insolence of the nobility, whose arrogance he was determined to repress.

CHRISTIAN VII, king of Denmark, born 1749, son of Frederic V and Louisa of England, succeeded his father, Jan. 13, 1766. In the same year, he married Caroline Matilda (q. v.), sister of George III of England. During his travels, in 1767-69, through Germany, Holland, England and France, he visited the most distinguished men of learning, the academies and literary societies, was made doctor of laws in Cambridge, and everywhere maintained the character of an affable and enlightened prince. At first, the count J. H. G. de Bernstorff, who had emoved the entire confidence of Frederic V. continued to preside over the affairs of the state. But, in 1770, Struensee (q. v.), the king's physician, who had gained an unlimited influence over bin. and had also insimuated himself into the favor of the improdent young queen, obtained this post. The reforms undertaken by this minister excited the hatred of the nobility and the discontent of the military The ambitions que n dowager (Julia Marke of Brunswick, step-mother of Christian) had in vain endeavored to disunite Christian and his wife, in order to obtain the direction of affairs. She now formed a connexion with some malcontents, and succeeded, dan. 15, 1772, in commention with them and her son, the hereditary prince l'iedene (Christian's step-brother), in obtaining from the king, after a long resistance, an order for the imprisonment of he queen, and Struensce, on prefence that they were consparing the deposition of the king. From that time the guidance of affairs was in the hands of Juha and of her son Frederic. The king, whom disease had deprived of his reason, reigned only normally. In 1784, the present king was placed, as regent, at the head of the government. (See Frederic I L) Before the taking of the capital by the English, in 1807, Christian VII had been carried to Rendsburg, in Holstein, where he died, March 13, 1808. The queen, Caroline Matilda, after having been conducted to the castle of Cronborg, had been subjected to an examination as to her connexion with Structuser. She afterwards repaired to Celle, where she died in 1775. Christian had but two children, the present king, Frederic VI, and the princess Augusta, married to the late duke of Holstein-Augustenburg. (For an account of Struepsec's fate, see the *Mémoires de M. de Falckenşkiold*, major-general of the king of Denmark, published by Secretan, Paris, 1826.)

CHRISTIANIA; capital of the kingdom of Norway, seat of government, and the place where the storthing (Norwegian parliament) meet; lon. 10° 49' E.; lat. 59° 53' 46" N. It contains 1500 houses, and 11.040 inhabitants, is situated in the diocese of Christiania, or Aggerhuus, on the northern end of the bay of Christianstiord, in a district where gardening is much pursued. Besides the suburbs, it contains Christiania Proper, built by king Christian IV, in 1624, on a regular plan, the Old City, or Opslo, and the citadel, Aggerhuus, which was demolished in 1815. Among the principal buildingare the toyal palace, the new controlnouse, and the exchange. Since 1811, a university (Predencia) has been established here, with a philological semmary, a botameal garden, an observatory, a libraiv, collections of various kinds, 1≤ probesons, and 200 students. Christiania also contains a military school, a bank, a commercial institute, an alum factory, &c. It has much trade, chiefly in himber and non Its harbor is excellent. The value of the lumber annually exported is estimated at \$10,000 guilders. In the viennty are 136 sawing-mills, which furnish, anandly, 20 unlions of planks.

CHASTISSITY: the religion instituted ov Jesus Christ Christianity, as it now exists in our minds, has received, from the enfuence of the priesthood, of national character, of the spirit of the time, and the thousand ways in which it has been brought into contact with politics and source, a quantity of impure additions, which we should first separate, in order to understand what it is in reality. There could be no better means of attaining a correct understanding of it, than to investigate, historically, the religious principles which Jesus himself professed, exhibited in his life, and labored to introduce into the world, if the investigator could avoid giving the coloring of his own views to his explanation of the records of the origm of Christianity. But the most honest anguirers have not entirely succeeded in so doing. Even the Christian theologians of the present age-less divided, in some countries, for instance, in Germany, by the spirit of creeds and sects, than by the difference of scientific methods and philosophical speculations—dispute respect-

ing the principle that constitutes the basis of the religion of Christ, which, in other respects, has been unanimously adopted. (See the articles Religion, Revelation, Rationalism, and Supernaturalism.) This principle appears, by its effect upon the numerous pations, differing so' greatly in intellectual character and cultivation, which received Christianity at first, to have been a universal truth, adapted to the whole human race, and of a divine, all-uniting power. The Jews believed in a living God, the Creator of all things, and, so far, had just views of the source of religion. The Greeks, besides developing the principle of the beautiful in their works of art, had laid the foundations of valuable sciences appheable to the business of life. The Romans had established the principles of law and political administration, and proved their value by experience. scattered elements of moral and intellectual cultivation, insufficient, in their disuinted state, to bring about the true happiness and moral perfection of man, in his social and individual capacity, were refined, perfected and combined by Christianity, through the law of a pure benevolence, the highest aim of which is that of rendering men good and happy, like God, and which finds, in the idea of a kneedom of heaven upon earth, announced and realized by Christ, all the means of executing its design. His religion supplied what was wanting to these nations—a religious character to the science of Greece, moral elevation to the legislative spirit of Rome. liberty and light to the devotion of the Jews-and, by inculcating the precept of universal love of mankind, raised the nairow spirit of patriotism to the extended techng of general philanthropy. Thus, the endeavors of ancient times after moral perfection were directed and concentrated by Christianity, which supplied, at the same time, a motive for diffusing more widely that light and those advantages which mystery and the spirit of eastes had formerly withheld from the multitude. It conveyed the highest ideas, the most important truths and principles, the purest laws of moral life, to all ranks: it proved the possibility of perfect virtue, through the example of its Founder; it laid the foundation for the peace of the world, through the doctrine of the reconcultation of men with God and with each other; and, directing their minds and hearts towards Jesus, the Author and Funsher of their faith, the crucified, ansen and glorified Mediator between heaven

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and earth, it taught them to discern the benevolent connexion of the titure life with the present. The history of Jesus, and the preparations of God for his mission, afforded the materials from which . Christians formed their conceptions of the character and tendency of their religion. The first community of the followers of Jesus was formed at Jerusalem, soon after the death of their Master. Another, at Antioch, in Syria, first assumed (about (5) the name of Christians, which had originally been given to them by their adversaries, as a term of repreach; and the travels of the apostles spread Christianity through the provinces of the Roman empire. Palestine, Syria, Natolia, Greece, the islands of the Mediterranean, Italy, and the northern coast of Africa, as early as the 1st century, contained societies of Christians. Then ecclesiastical discipline was simple, and conformable to their humble condition, and they continued to acquire strength anndst all kinds of op-pressions. (See Persecutions.) At the end of the 2d century, Christians were to be found in all the provinces, and, at the end of the 3d century, almost one half of the inhabitants of the Roman empire, and of several neighboring countries, professed this behef. The endeavor to preserve a unity of firth (see Orthology) and of church discipline, caused mumberless dis . putes among those of different opinions tee Hereties and Sects, and led to the establishment of an ecclesustical tyronix, for withstanding the oppositions which in first Christians had expenenced from a similar nomination—the Jewish prest-At the beginning of the 4th cenhand. tury, when the Christians obtained toleradon by means of Constantine the Great, and, soon after, the superiority in the Roman empire, the bishops exercised the power of arbiters or faith, in the first general council (see Nice, 325, by instanting a creed binding on all Christians. Upon this foundation, the later councils (q. v.), assisted by those writers who are hongred . by the church as its fathers and teachers (see Fathers of the Church, Jerome, Ambrose, Augustine. &c., erected the edition of the orthodox system: while the superior portion of the cecie-ia-ties, who were now transfermed into priests, and elevated above the laity as a privileged, sacred order (see Clergy and Priests , were enabled, partly by their mercasing authorny in matters of church discipline, partly by the behel, which they had encouraged, that certain traditions from the apostles were inherited by them only (see Tradi-

tions), to preserve the prerogatives at first granted them out of love and granted but afterwards much extended by the selves, and to make themselves, gradually masters of the church. (See Bishops, Patriarchs, Popes, Hierarchy.) This views were promoted by the favor of emperors (see Theodosius the Great) (100) slight interruptions in the reign of Julian and some of his successors), by the increased splendor and various ceremonials of divine worship (see Mass, Saints, Retics, Iconoclasts), by the decline of classical learning, the increasing superstition, result-, , ing from this increase of ignorance, and by the establishment of convents and monks. (See Convents.) In this form, appealing to the senses more than to the understanding, Christianity, which had been intro-duced among the Goths in the 4th centu-13, was spread among the other Teutome nations in the west and north of Europe, . and subjected to its power, during the 7th and 5th centuries, the rude warriors who founded new kingdoms on the runs of the Western Empire, while it was losing ground, in Asia and Africa, before the cucroacliments of the Saracens, by whose rigorous measures hundreds of thousands of Christians were converted to Mohammedanism, the heretical sects which had been disowned by the orthodox church see Jacobiles, Copts J. Irmeniums, Maronites, Nestorians) being almost the only Christians who maritaged themselves in the East. During this progress of Mohammedanjem, which, in Lurope, extend-5 ed only to Span and Sight, the Roman paper - Popes and Gregory 1 11; who were advancing systematically to ecclesis ashed superiority in the west of Europe, gened more in the north, and, soon after. in the east of this quarter of the world, by the conversion of the Felavorae and Feanduravian nations (from the 10th to the 12th century, than they had lost in other regions. For the Mohammedans had closely overrun the territory of the Fastern church see Greek Church; which had been, since the 5th century, no longer one with the Western (Latin, church, and had, by degrees, become entirely separate from it. In the 10th century, it received some new adherents, by the conversion of the Russians, who are now its most powerful support. But the crusaders, who were led, partly by religious enthusiasm, partly by the desire of conquest and adventures (1096-1150), to attempt the recovery of the holy sepulchre, gained the new kingdom of Jerusalem, not for the Greek emperor, but for themselves and

the papal hierarchy. The confusion which this finally unsuccessful undertaking introduced into the civil and domestic affairs of the western nations, gave the church a favorable opportunity of increasing its possessions, and asserting its pretensions to universal mon-But, contrary to the wishes and expectations of the rulers of the church, the remains of ancient heresics (see Manichaans, Paulicians) were introduced into the West, through the increased intercourse of nations, and by the returning crusaders, and new and more liberal ideas were propagated, springing from the philosophical spirit of examination of some selecolmen (see Abelard, Arnold of Brescia), and the indigitation excited by the corruptions of the clergy. These kindled an opposition among all the societies and sects against the Roman Inerarchy. (See Cathari, Albigensis, Waldenses.) The foundation and multiplication of eccle-ia-tical orders (q. v.), particularly the Franciscans and Dominicans, for the care of souls and the instruction of the people, which had been neglected by the secular praests, did not remedy the cyll, because they labored, in general, more actively to promote the interests of the church and the papery. than to remove superstroom and ignorance; and hold speculations, which would not yield to their persuasion, were still less likely to be extirpated by the power of the inquisition (q. v.), which arried itself with fire and sword. The great datference of the Christian religion, as it was then taught and practised, from the religion of Jesus Christ, the insufficiency of what the church taught to the religious wants of the human mand and heart. was apparent to many, partly from then knowledge of the spirit of Jesus, derived from the Bible, which was already studied, in secret, by curious readers, in spite of the prohibitions of the church, and partly from the hold eloquence of single teachers and cluels of sects. Ecclesiastical orders also desired to pursue their own course (see Knights Templars, Franciscans); offended princes forgot the great services of the papal power in promoting the cultivation of nations in the first centuries of the middle ages; and the popes themselves made little effort to reform or conceal the corruption of their court and of the clergy. They even afforded the scandalous spectacle of a schism in the church (see Schism, Popes, and Intipope), which was distracted, after 1378, for more than 30 years, by the quartels between two candidates, who both asserted their VOL. 111. 15

(See Crusades.) right to the papel chair. This dispute his finally unsuc- was settled only by the decrees of the council of Constance (1414-1418), which were very unfavorable to the papal power. The doctrines of the English Wickliff (q. v.) had already given rise to a party opposed to the popedom; and the revolt of the adherents of the Bohemian reformer (see Huss, Hussiles), who was burnt at Constance on account of similar doctrines, extorted from the council of Bale (143) —43) certain compacts, which, being firmly maintained, proved to the friends of a reformation in the head and members of the church (proposed, but without suc cess, at the council of Bale), what a firm. and united opposition to the abuses of the Roman church might be able to effect We refer the reader to the article Reformotion, and the articles relating to it, for a history of the causes, progress and consequences of this great event. But that this great change in the church has revived primitive Christianity in the spirit of as Founder, the most zealous Protestares will not assert, any more than the reflecting Catholic will deny the necessity of such a reform, and the real ments of Protestantism in promoting it. See Trent. Comil of Roman Catholic Church, unit Profesteritism; the forms under which Christianaty appears, in our days, a very adder not. The example of the south of Europe proves how easily this religion naturalizes uself, but, also, how much it loss, under the influence of sensuality and an over-active funcy, of the simple gradem, the moral power and pure spirit of its original character. Protestantism removed from the northern nations many of the bardens with which the predominance of the eartidy nature had oppressed the spirit of religion. By opening the Bible to all, it argused the spirit of inquiry, but also gave rise to an immense variety of sects, springing from the different views which different men were lea to form from the study of the sacred volunic. The present moral and political condition of Christian Europe, though affected by so many influences foreign to religion, bears the stamp of a cultivation springing from Christianity, and this has been impressed upon its colonies in distant lands, among which the T. States of North America alone have advanced to the principle of universal teleration. But if we look among our contemporaries for Christianity as it dwelt and operated in Christ, we shall find it pure in no naters and in no religious party; but we perceive its features in the conduct of the enlight-

ened and pious among all nations, who . lave Christ, and are penetrated with his Spirit. How Christianity will develope itself in North America, where all sects, · are tolerated, what will be the result of this immense variety of opmions and creeds, is, as yet, a matter of speculation. The general views of the great body of Protestant sects in this country, however, have so much in common, that they may, still be considered as forming one great family among the principal divisions of the Christian world. Whether this will he true after a considerable time has elapsed, is at least doubtful, as the Unita- \* rians and Trantarians seem to be taking essentially different directions.

GHRISTIANS: the general name of the followers of Christ. (See Christianity.)

CHRISTIANS; the name of a denomination, in the U. States, adopted to exprestheir renunciation of all sectamanism. They have become numerous in all parts of the country, the number of their churches, in 1527, being estimated at åbout 1000. Each church is an independent body; they recognise no creed, no authority in matters of doctrine; the Scriptures, which every individual must interpret for hunself, are then enly rule of faith: admission to the church is obtained by a simple profession of belief in Christunity, speculative belief they from a of little importance, compared with virtue of character. In New Ec. 2 and, the virtue grated principally from the Calcium's Buptists : in the Southern State - The the Methodists; and in the Western, from the Presbyteridas. There was, therefore, at first, a great diversity of oper on an i pracnce among them, each clarch retaining some of the peculianties of the sect from which it seeded. In New England, the churches were established on the principle of close communion, which was such abandoned. In the South and West, they were Pedobaptists, but have since become Baptists. Nearly all were, at first, Trimtarians: but the doctrine of the Triuty, and its concomitant doctrines, are new timely sally rejected by them. To maintain a connexion between the different churches, one or more conferences are formed in each state, consisting of members delegated from each church. In 1827, there were 23 of these conferences, which again form, by delegation, the United States General Christian Conference. They have several periodical works (Christian Herald, Portsmouth, N. H.: Gospel Lamans. ry, N. Y.; Christian Messenger, Ky ), but no theological seminary, considering that

whoever understands the gospel may teach it. They consider Christ as the Son of God, miraculously conceived, whose death was a ratification of the new covenant, not a propinitory sacrifice; and the Holy Ghost or Spirit as the power or energy of God, exerted in converting the wicked and strongthening the

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CHRISTIANS OF ST. THOMAS; the name of a sect of Christians on the coast of Mal abar, in the East Indies, to which region the apostle St. Thomas is said to have carried the gospel. They belong to those Christians who, in the year 499, united to form a Syrian and Chaldaic church in Central and Eastern Asia, and are, like them, Nestorans. (See Syrian Christians.) They have, however, retained rather more strongly than the latter the features of their descent from the earliest Christian communities. Lake those, they still celebree the agapes, or love-feasts, portion madens from the property of the church, and provide for their poor. Their notions respecting the Lord's support incline tothose of the Protestants, but, in relebrating it, they use bread with salt and oil. At the time of baptism, they amount the body of the infant with oil. These two cerefromes, together with the consecration of priests, are the only sucraments which they acknowledge. Then priests are distinguished by the tonsure, are allowed to marry, and were, until the 16th century, under a Nestorian patriarea at Babyloia, were at Mesul, from whom they received their behoft, and upon whom they are also dependent for the consecration of then prests. Their churches contain, except the cross, no symbols nor pictures Their lite, gv is semilar to the Syrian, and the Sman he guage is used in it. When the Portuguescoccupied the East Indies, the Roman Catholic clergy endeavored to subject the Christians of St. Thomas to the government of the paper. The arch bish ip of Goa succeeded, in 1599, in persweding them to submit, and form a part of his diocese. They were obliged to renonnce the Nestorian faith, adopt a few Catholic ceremonies, and obey a Jesus, who became their bishop. But, after the Portuguese were supplanted by the Dutch on the coast of Malabar, this umon of the Christians of St. Thomas with the Roman church censed, and they returned to their old forms. At present, they are, under the Bratish government, free from any ec cle-sastical restraint, and form among themselves a kind of spiritual republic, under a bishop chosen by themselves, and

171

in which the priests and elders administer justice, using excommunication as a means of punishment. In their political relations to the natives, they belong to the class of the Nairi, or nobility of the second rank, are allowed to ride on elephants, and to carry on commerce and agriculture, instead of practising mechanical trades, like the lower classes. Travellers describe them as very ignorant, but, at the same time, of very good morals.

CHRISTIANSAND; a government and bishopric of Norway, occupying the S. W. part of the country. The population of this division of the kingdom is estimated at 134,000; square miles, 11,800. Though one of the most fernle parts of the country, the grain produced is not adequate to the consumption of the inhabstants, and grain is therefore one of the chief imports. The inhabitants are principally employed in the fisheries and an cutting trees. Timber forms the chaff article of their exports.-The capital is also called Christiansand, and is situated on the S. ceast. The streets are broad end straight, and the houses have extensive gardens. It is considered as the Only two years after, she took upon herto irth town in the kingdom. It contains about 5000 inhabitants. Its harbor is one of the best in Norway. It derives some support from the trade or tuber, but depends chiefly on the repair of vessely which put in there to refit. Lon. 803 E. 14 58 B' N.

Christians, Or, or Ext. Holm, a group of islands, in the Baltic, belonging to Denerark, insured from the chief Mand, which has a nunch-frequented port, a light-house and a castle, Ion. 14—17° E.: fat. 55 or 8°

CHRISTINA, queen of Sweden, born Dec. 9, 1626, daughter of Gustavus Adolpmis and the princess Main Eleonore of Prandenburg, was distinguished for beauty, and taste for the liberal arts. Gu-tacur, who beheld in Christina the only support of his throne, took the greatest care of her education, which was conducted in a masculine manner. She was instructed in all the sciences adapted to improve her mind and strengthen her character. After the death of Gustavus, at Litzen, in 1632, the states-general eppointed guardians to the queen Christina, then but six years old. These were the five highest officers of the crown, who were intrusted, at the same time, with the administration of the kingdom. The education of Christma was continued according to the plan of Gustavus Adolphus. Endowed with a lively imagination, a good memory, and uncommon intelligence, she made the most rapid progress. She learned the ancient languages, history, geography, politics, and renounced the pleasures of her age in order to devote herself entirely to study. She already betrayed those peculiarities which characterized her whole life, and which were, perhaps, as much the consequence of her education as of her natural disposition. She did not like to appear in the female dress, made long journeys on foot or on horseback, and delighted in the fatigues and even the dangers of the chase. She . submitted reluctantly to the customs of the court, alternately treating those who surrounded her with the greatest familiarity and with haughtness or commanding She honored the chancellor dignity. Oven-tiern as a father, and learned from hun the art of governing. She soon showed, in the assembly of the states, a maturity of understanding which astonished her guardians. In 1642, the Antesgeneral proposed to her to take the administiction into her own hands; but she excused herself on the ground of her youth. self the government. A great talent for business, and great firmness of purpose, distinguished her tast steps. She terminated the war with Denmark, begun in 1641, and obtained several provinces by the trents concluded at Bromsebro, in -She then, contrary to the advice 10:45 of Ovenstern, who hoped to gain, by the contaminee of the war, still greater advantages for Sweden, labored to reestabhsb peace in Germany, in order to be able to devote herself uninterruptedly to the sciences and the arts of peace. Christma was fitted, by her talents and the errounstances in which she was placed, to play the most distinguished part in the North of Europe, and, for some time, seemed sensible of the charms of her lofty station. On many occasions, she maintained the dignity of her crown and the honor of her country. France, Spain, Holland and England sought her friendship. She promoted commerce by wise legislation, and patronised the learned and literary institutions. The nation was devoted to her, and rejoiced to 'see the daughter of Gustavus at the head of the government, surrounded by generals and state-men formed by that great prince. It was the umversal wish that the queen should choose a husband; but her love of independence rendered her averse to such a connexign. Among the princes who sued for her hand, her cousin, Charles Gustavus of

Deuxponts, was distinguished for his intelligence, noble character, and extensive, knowledge. She declined his offer, but induced the states-general, in 1649, to designate him for her successor. In 1650, she caused herself to be crowned, with great pomp, and with the title of king. From that time, a striking change in her conduct was percepuble. She neglected her ancient ministers, and listened to the advice of ambitious favorites. Intrigute and base passions succeeded to her former noble and useful views. The public treasure was squandered with extravagang profusion. Distinctions were conferred upon the undeserving, and jealousy produced murrours, complaints and fac-In this state of confusion, the queen declared her antention of abdicating the crown. The old nameters, honoring the memory of Gustavus Adolphus, remonstrated in the strongest terms, and, above all, Oxenstiern expressed hinself with so much energy, that the queen desend from her resolution. She now grasped with more firmness the reass of government, and dissipated, for a time, the clouds which had darkened ber throne. The occupied herself again with study, bought para mgs, medals, monuscripts, books, me a cared a corresponence with many karried in P. and invited several to her court. Descartes, Greens Salmasus, Bochert, Huet, Cheveran, Navi de, Vossius, Conraig, Meiboni, opposito in Stockholm, and the queen conversal combarly with them on literacy and plabeoptical subjects. Among the literary amusements who is she in ted with serias studies, was the Greenan dance, which she caused to be exhibited by Weshorn of v. and Narde. But it is troubles occarred, and the conspiracy of Messenius inreatened not only the a vortes of the queen, but the queen herseit. Christina, who loved whatever was uncommor, resumed the determination to resign the crown. In 1654, at the age of 23, she assembled the states-general at 1 psal, end, in their presence, laid aside the insigma &: royalty, to surrender them into the hands of prince Charles Gustavus. She reservaed to herself a certain meomic entire independence, and full power over her -une and household. Asfew days after, she left Sweden, alki went through Denmark and Germany to Brussels, where she made a public entry, and remained for some time. There she made a secret profession of the Catholic religion, which she afterwards publicly confirmed in Inspirack-a supwhich excited great astonishment, and of

the causes of which nothing certain is known. Christina went from Inspruck to Rome, which she entered on horseback, in the costume of an Amazon, with great pomp. When the pope Alexander VII confirmed her, she adopted the surname of Alessandra. She visited the monuments of the city, and attentively examined every thing which could awaken historical recollections. In 1656, she visited France, and remained at Fontaincblean, at Compiegne, where the court was then held; and at Paris. Her dress and manners produced an unfavorable impression, but her talents and knowledge were generally admired. She offered to mediare between France and Spain; but Mazarm declined the offer, and successed in \*accelerating her departure from France, under various pretexts. In the following year, she returned. This second residence in France was rendered remarkable by the execution of her grand equerry, Monalde-chi, who had enjoyed her entire conidence, but whom she accused of treason. This act of vengennes, though defended A Leibnitz, sa stain on the memory of Christine. The Prench court testified its displeasing, and two courts presed befor the one in showed seeself publicly in "hes to look, she gowind to Rome, Vence she received very unpleasing news ti in Sweden. Her revenue was not treasmitted to her, and nobody would make her advances. Alexander VII rebeyod her from the embarrassment by a person of 12,000 seads idollars. the death of Chinks Gustavus, in 1660, the 'queen made a visit to Sweden, under to tence of wishing to arrange her private attern but it was soon perceived that tio had other views Is the crownper e was very young, she declared, that, negoes of me death, she should lay claim to the throne. This project was unfavorabivercoped, and she was compelled to sign a formal act of abdication. Other supleasant circumstances induced her to abandon Stockholm. She visited Sweden a second time in 1666, but returned to Hamburg without reaching the capital, having heard that the public exercise of her religion would not be allowed her. About this time, she aspired to the Polish crown, but the Poles took no notice of her wishes. Finally, she returned to Italy, where she passed the remainder of her lde, at Rome, in the cultivation of the arts and sciences. She founded an academy, collected valuable manuscripts, medals and painting, and died, after having ex-, penenced many vexations, April 19, 1689

## CHRISTINA—CHRISTOPHI

She was interred in the church of St. Peter, and the pope erected a monument. to her with a long inscription. She had asked only for these few words: Virit Christina annos LXIII: Her principal heir was the cardinal Azzolini, her intendant. Her library was bought by pope Alexander VIII, who placed 900 manuscripts of this collection in the Vatican, and gave the remainder of the books to his family. Odescalchi, the nephew of Innocent XI, purchased the paintings and antiquities. The duke of Orleans, regent of France, bought a part of the paintings, for 90,000 scudi, in 1722. The value of these collections may be learned fion the 'wo works which give a description of them, namely, Havercamp's Nummophyla tum Regina Christina, and the Museum Odesculcum. The life of Christina presents a series of inconsistencies and contradictions, we see, on one side, magresumity, frankness, nuldness; on the other, vanity, severity, revenge and dissimulation. Her knowledge of the world, her acuteness and penetration, did not preserve her from visionary projects, from the dreams of ab hemy and astrology, and other dinsions. She left some small works. in which her character and manner of thinking are perceptible, and which, for the most part, are contained in Archen-hold's Memous of this princess (1751, \$ vols, 4to.). The authenticity of the letters which appeared in 1762, under her "same, is not proved.

CHRISTMAS, the feast of Christ's buth, was, according to many critics, not wellbrated in the first centuries of the Chriscan church, as the Christian usage, in general, was, to celebrate the death of remarkable persons rather than their birth. The death of the marty: Stephen, and the massacre of the unocents at Bethlehem, had been aheady long celebrated, when, perhaps in opposition to the doctrine of the Manicheuns respecting the birth of the Savior, a feast was established, in memory of this event, in the 4th century. In the 5th century, the Western church ordered it to be celebrated for ever on the day of the old Roman feast of the birth of Sol, on the 25th of December, though no information respecting the day of Christ's birth existed. In the East, Christmas was celebrated on the 6th of January. From the gospel of St. Luke, it was known that Christ was born during the rught, and therefore divine service was performed in the night of Dec. 21-25, from which circumstance Christmas is called, in German, Weihnachter, i. c. Holy

or Consecrated Night. The feasts of the martyr Stephen and the evangelist St. John were united with it, and a feast of three days' continuance was thus formed. In the ecclesiastical year, this festival gives name to a period extending from the first Sunday of Advent to the feast of Epipha. ny, Jan. 6. Some say that Christmas has always been celebrated in the church. In the Catholic church, three masses are performed—one at midnight, one at daybreak, and one in the morning. In the Greek and Roman churches, the manger, the holy family, &c., are sometimes represented at large. Some convents in Rome, chiefly the Franciscans, are famous for attracting many people by such The church of England exhibitions. celebrates this feast, as do the great body of European Protestants. In the U: States, it is little regarded, except by the Episcopahans. The custom of making presents on Christmas-eve is derived from an old heathen usage, practised at the feast of the birth of Sol, or, in Germany, on the occasion of some feast peculiar to that country (at least the Ruprecht seems to have had such an origin); but it has become consecrated by ages, and contributes a great deal to make this festival an interesting event to families. In the north of Germany, this custon, prevails most, pervading all the classes and relations of society. In some German churches, sermons are delivered on Christmas-eve for the benefit of children, who attend, carrying cach a little taper. In the Catholic church, the offerion pastorum is sung in which a chords of children respond to tine praest.

CHRISTOPHE, Henri, king of Hayti, was born Oct. 6, 1767, in the island of Grenada, as stated by some, but, as others say, in that of St. Christopher. According to the latter account, he was carried to St. Domingo, at the age of twelve, sold as a slave, and employed by his new master in the business of a cook, which calling he exercised at the Cape. Others relate that, after having served in the American war, and received a wound at the siege of Savanuals, he went to St. Domingo, and was employed on the plantation of Lamonade. in the capacity of an overseer, wherein he displayed his characteristic seggrity. From the commencement of the trouble- among The blacks, he took a decided part in favor of independence, and signalized hunself by his energy, holdness and activity, in many bloody engagements. Toussant-Louverture, the acknowledged chief of a the blacks, at length gave him the com-

15\*

mission of brigadicr-general, and employed him to suppress an insurrection livaded by his nephew Moyse. This object was speedily accomplished by Christophe, who made himself master of the person of Moyse, and succeeded him as governor of the province of the North. The execution of Moyse excited new troubles at the Cape, which the activity and intrepidmy of Christophe completely suppressed. He commanded there in 1802, when Leclere arrived with a French army, desamed for the subjugation of the Negroes. Most of them, deceived by the promises of Leclere, at first gave way to his designs; but Dessahnes and Christophe resisted from the beginning, and were declared outlaws. Christophe was compilled to make his peace, but resumed arms again upon the pertidious seizure of the person of Toussaint. The climate aided the heroic efforts of Dessalines and Christophe, and sat the close of 4805, there was no longer a French force in Hayti,-tor-so the island was now denominated by the insurgent chiefs. During the short-lived government of Dessahnes, Christophe was general-in-chief of the Haytian army, and, being the senior officer, and most distinguished among the blacks, possessed, of course, powerful claims to succeed him m authority. But the popularity of Petion in the South balanced that of Chris tophe in the North. In Polymary, 1807. an assembly convened at the Cape apwanted Christophe president for life of the state of Havir; and, about the same time, a republic was organized at Port-ati-Acroit Prince, with Petion at its head. war between the two chiefs ensued, but did not prevent Christophe from taking u berous measures to establish public order in the territory which he governed. He organized the atmanistration, the tribanals, the marme, and the army, made sutable regulations for the encouragement of agriculture, commerce, and other branches of industry among his people, and, by his energy, attained the most flattering results. The unhary force was placed on a respectable fosting, and his · zinances were brought into a flourishing condition. He constructed fortifications, and was enabled to set the Urench at detiance. Following the example of Napolean, whom he unitated, he abolished the republican forms, March 28, 1811, and was proclaimed king of Hayo, by the name of Henry L. The dignity and title were made hereditary in his family, a hereditary noblate was created, to give hetre and strength to the new institutions.

with an appropriate order of knighthood; and, to complete the imitation of foudal sovereignties, he was solemnly growned at the Cape, June 2, 1812, with the ceremonies customary in Europe. He also sought to perpetuate his name by the compilation of the Code Henri-a digest founded upon the Code Napoleon, but not servilely copied. On the contrary, it was judiciously adapted to the situation of Hayti. In 1813, some cases of defection occurred among his subjects, which tended to exasperate the violent and suspicious temper of Christophe, and prompted him to impolitic acts of cruelty. In 1814, he and Petion suspended hostilities, not by a formal agreement, but, as it were, by tacit For several years in succession, consent after this, the efforts of the Prench to regain then authority in the island gave a new turn to the policy of Christophe's govern-He constantly refused to hear any. proposition from the ex-colonists, short of an acknowledgment of the unqualified independence of the island, and he adopted the most decided measures to counteract the attempts made by France. Beside his military preparations for defence against aggression, he multiplied, through the agency of the press, writings calculated to render the views of the ex-colonists odions, and to maintain the spirit of independence among the enuncipated blacks. To furthat the same object, he conceived, and, at one period, scriously set about effecting, the plan of substituting the Pughsh language in the island in place of the French; his pitercourse with the English and American mereban's having communicated to him a partiality for their language. This project entered into a system of general editeation, which he devised for the Haytans. Things continued to proceed in this way until the death of Petion, in 1715, and the accession of Boyer Discontents had mereased, meanwhile, among the subjects of Christophe, who contrasted the mild and easy rule of Boyer with the non-despotism under which they grouned; and the army uself was ripe for a change. Insurrection began among the garrison of St Marc, which mutimed in a body, killed the governor of the town, and sent a deputation to Boyer, signifying their desire to join the republic. Boyer hastily assumbled a force of 15,000 men, and marched to the support of the insurgent At this time, Christophe was garrison. confined, by illness, in his fortified palace of Sans Souci, where he commonly resided. The insurrection soon spread to the Cape, where Richard, due de Marmalade,

and one of the first dignitaries of the kingdom, proclaimed the abolition of royalty at the head of the troops. The dite of Christophe's army, composing his guard of about 1500 men, continued faithful tofum for a while, but, when marched up to oppose the insurgents from the Cape, joined with the latter in demanding the deposition of Christophe. Perceiving his case to be desperate, and resolved not to gratify the insurgents by becoming their prisoner, Christophe shot himself with a justol, October 8, 1820. His corpse renained exposed several days on the highvay, and his oldest son was massacred; ait Boyer protected his widow and daugh-∵rs from injury, and enabled them to reme to Europe in the possession of a comp tent fortune. A large treasure was found in fort Henry, which Christophe and amassed from the customs on merchandise. His palace was dismantled by 'e populace, who seemed to take pleashe in defacing what had cost them so puch toil to construct. Thus ended a gu, from which the friends of the blacks. nicipated much and with justice. Chrisopines policy was probably better calcusated than that of Petion and Boyer to dvance the prosperity of Hayti. 1211aloge and commerce flourished under ban, and declined under the latter; but, as government being purely a military despotism, in which he himself was every thing, and the wishes of his people were totally disregarded, the administration degenerated into a system of tyranny which proved ansupportable. (Am. Nerrol, 1721; Cranklin's Hayte: Malo, His. d'Hayte.)

Charstornes, duke of Wurtemberg; born in 1515; one of the wisest rulers mentioned in Instory. His youth was a onstant scene of adversity. When he was but four years old, the confederated Sualnan cities expelled his father, the dake of Wintemberg, from his dominions, and sold the dukedom to Austria. Christopher was brought to Vienna, and was mudly saved by his titter, Tytlerm, from the hands of the Turks, when that city was besieged by Solyman. He was a second time preserved from captivity, by the same individual, in 1532, when Charles I intended to bury his person and his claims on Winteroberg in a Spanish con-Christopher had been conveyed almost to the frontiers of Spain, when he fled, and safely reached Bayara, the duke of which was his uncle, and, together with Philip of Hesse, now commenced a war against Austria, to compel her to resign her claims to Wurtemberg. Francis I

supplied them with money to carry on the the contest. The battle of Laufen, in 1534, restored the father of Christopher to the government of Wurtemberg. topher himself, whom his father disliked, went into the French service. After eight years, he was recalled. In 1550, his father died; but he could not consider himselt securely possessed of the dukedom until 1552, when he immediately began to devote himself in every way to the improvement of his subjects. He reestablished the Lutheran religion, which had been prohibited during the interregnum, and, in so doing, gratified the wishes of his subjects. But he did not appropriate the possessions of convents, and other ecclesiastical establishments, to himself, as so many or most of the Protestant princes did, but formed out of it a great find, called the Wurtembergian church property, to be used for supplying the wants of the church, and for other beneficent purposes. The Wurtembergiun closter schools, for the education of young clergymen, and the great theological seminary at Tubingen, are his work. He improved the schools, so that education in Wortemberg, even at the present time, is, perhaps, in a more flourishing state than an any other part of the world. He extended the laborities of his subjects, and established a civil code, which still exists. At the same time, he was continwilly attentive to the state of Europe. , The fate of Protestantism in Germany was a subject in which he took great inten st. He had an interview with Catha- . rme of Medicis and the Guises, in order to alleviate the fate of the Huguenots, and contributed much to the religious peace at Augsburg in 1555. He endeavored to unite the Protestant princes of Germany, and was intrusted with many highly honerable commissions by the empire. He fulled 18 years, and died in December, 1568; but lives still in the memory of the people of Wortenflerg, who regard him as the model of a ruler. J. C. Pfister has well described the life of Christopher.
\*Christopher, St.: a saint whose name

Christopher, St.; a saint whose name and worship are celebrated, but whose history is little known. He is reported to have been a native of Syria or Cihera, who was baptized by St. Babylas, bishop of Antoch, and received the grown of martyrdom, in Asia Minor, about the maddle of the third century. Relies of him are found in several places, principally in Spain. The Eastern church celebrates his festival on the 9th of May; the Western, on the 25th of July. His intercession was particularly sought in the time of the,

plague. Christopher, or Christophel, literally means bearer of Christ. He is represented as a giant, bearing the child Jesus upon his shoulders through the sea, which refers to a legend of this sunt. The St. Christopher of Henning is one of the finest pictures in the gallery of Roisserée. (q. v.)

Christophia, St. (commonly called St. Kitt's); an i-land in the West Indies, belonging to Great Britain, discovered by Columbus in 1493, about 15 miles in length, and, in general, about 4 in breadth, but towards the eastern extremity, not more than 3. Between that part and the \* rest of the island is a strip of land 3 miles in length, which does not measure half a mile across. This island contains 13,726 acres, of which about 17,000 acres are appropriated to the growth of sugar, and 4000 to pasturage. As sugar is the only commodity of any consequence that is raised, except the necessary articles of food, and .. little cotton, it is probable that nearly me half of the whole island is unfit for cultivation. The interior part of the country consists, indeed, of many rugged precipiece and barren mountains. Of these the loftiest is mount Misery (evidently an extinguished volcano), which uses 3711 feet in perpendicular height from the sea. The general average produce of sugar for a scree of years is 10,000 hogsheads of 16 cwt, which, as one half only of the whole cane land, or \$500 acres is annually cut the remainder being young ranes), gives nearly two logsheads of 16 wit, per acre for the whole of the land in tipe cames. This island is divided into nne parishes, and contains four towns and hamlets, viz. Basseterre, the present capital, as it was formerly that of the French, "cotaming about "00 houses, Sandy Point, Old Road and Deep Bay. Of these, the ewo first are ports of entry, established The formications consist of by law. Charles Fort and Branstone Hill, both near Sandy Point, three batteries at Bassereme, one at Fig-tree Bay, another ge Palmetto Point, and some smaller ones of no great importance. Population, in 1-23 -4, according to Humboldt, 23,000, of whom 3500 were free persons, and 19,500 slaves. Official value of imports and exports:- Impert

CHROMATE OF IRON, OF CHEOMETERN, is a runneral substance of very considerable interest, as affording or c of the

most beautiful and durable pigments in the arts. It is found disseminated in grains and imperfectly crystallized massex-occasionally in regular octocdral crystals, its primary form,-of a black color, a shining and somewhat metallic lustre. It scratches glass, is opaque, and has a specific gravity of 4.03. According to Vauquelin, that of France consists of 43 chromic acid, 34.7 oxide of iron, 20.3 alumine, silex 2. But chemists, at the present day, consider the chrome in this minend in the state of an oxide, and not of an acid: accordingly the mineral is nowmore correctly denominated the ferruginous gride of chrome. It is found in great abundance in Maryland, at the Bare hills, near Baltimore, and is contained in a steatitic or a rpentine rock. It also occurs in small quantities at numerous other places in the U. States, and has many localines in other countries.

CHRONATIC, in music; one of the three ancient genera-diatonic, chromatic and enharmome. The word chromatic has beda adopted, as it is believed, because the Greeks were in the habit of designating this genus by characters of various colors, or, as some say, because the chromatic genus is a mean between the other two, as color is a mean between white and black (this seems to be a very poor explanations: or, lastly, because the chromatic genus, by its semitones, varies and emb lishes the diatonic, thus producing an effect similar to that of coloring. In modern music, the word chromatic simply no age, a succession of semitones, ascending or descending. Thus the expressions chromatic secutions (the interval which rfound between any given note and that same note raised by a sharp or lowered by a flat), chromatic scale, chromatic moduletion, are terms in use.

Chkeyr: the name of a metal, which, combined wide oxygen so as to be in the state of an acid, was discovered by Vanquelin, in an ore of lead from Siberia. The metal has since been, found combined with non in the U. States, and at Unst, one of the Shetland isks. It appears also to be the coloring principle of the emerald and the ruby, and has received its name from its property of assuming brilliant colors in the combinations into which it enters. Chrome, which has hitherto been procured in very small quantities, owing to its powerful attraction for oxygen, may be obtained by mixing the oxide of chrome with chargoal, and exposing the mixture to the most intense heat of a sunth's forges It is brittle, of a gray sh white color, and

very infusible. Its specific gravity is 5.9. Chrome unites with oxygen in three proportions, forming two oxides and one acid. The protoxide is of a green color, exceedingly infusible by itself, but with boras, or vitroous substances, it melts, and ommunicates to them a beautiful emeraldgreen color. Indeed, the emerald owes its The protoxide is color to this exide. employed at the manufactory of Sevres. n France, to give a fine deep-green to the enamel of porcelam. It is applied without a flux, and melted with the enamel. Chromic acid, however, is the most important of the compounds formed by ons metal along with oxygen. It is usually prepared for chemical purposes by many solutions of narate of barytes and inomate of potash, and digesting the bromate of barytes that is formed in diinte sulphuric acid. This abstracts the berytes, and the chromic acid is procured, by evaporation, in crystals of a fine rubynd color. It is very soluble in water, has a sour, metallic taste, and all the characters of a strong acid. It combines with the alkalies, earths and metallic oxides. forming salts, many of which have very ich colors. The alkaline chromates are soluble and crystallizable. They are of a sollow or red color, the neutral chromateing commonly yellow, and the bi-chroof these is the bi-chromate of potash, sinch is one of the most splendid, and, at the same time, one of the most useful salts. The manner in which it is formed is as follows:—Chromate of iron, or rather ferrugmous exide of chrome, reduced to tine powder, is mixed with half its weight of intrate of potash, and heated strongly for an hour or two in crucibles. The re-Foling masses are then repeatedly digested with water, and the colored liquids, which are slightly alkaline, saturated with ratric acid, and concentrated by evaporatonatill no more crystals of nitre can be obtained from them. The yellow liquid, being now set aside for a week or two, deposits a copious crop of crystals, whose form is that of a four-sided prism, termipated by dihedral summits. Their color - an intense lemon-vellow, with a slight shade of orange. 100 parts of water ar 60° dissolves about 45 parts; but boiling water dissolves almost any quantity. Its solution in water decomposes most of the metalic salts; those of mercury, of a fine red; copper and iron, of a reddish brown; silver, dark red , and lead, of a beautiful yellow color, now much used as a pigment, under the name of chrome yellow. Chrome

yellow is largely manufactured in the U. States, at Baltimore, near which place is found one of the most remarkable deposits of ferruginous oxide of chrome in the The process consists in adding a solution of acetate of lead (or sugar of lead) to the rough solution of chromate of . potash, from which the nitrate of potash has been just separated by crystallization. The acetate of lead is added as long as any sediment falls. The liquid is then filtered, and the yellow precipitate left on a the filters, dried for sale.

CHROMIC ACID. (See Chrome.)
CHROSIC (from xulvo., time); a term applied to diseases which are of long duration, and mostly without fever. It is used in opposition to the term acute, which re applied both to a pungent pain, and to a disease which is attended with violent symptoms, terminates in a few days, and is attended with danger. On the other hand, a chronic disease is slow in its progress, and not so generally dangerous.

CHRONICLE, strictly speaking, is a history digested according to the order of time. In this sense, it differs but bitle from annals. The term is mostly used in reference to the old histories of nations, written when they were comparatively rude. Chronieles belong to the sources of history, and many have been handed mates, red or deep orange. The best known slown from early ages; for instance, the two books of the Chromeles of the Hebrews, which belong to the Old Testa-With many nations, such chromcles were written under the authority of government, and prests, being the only men of learning among uncultivated tribes, were intrusted with this office. In the early Christian ages, also, clergymen were generally the authors of the chronicles; e. g., Luschus, bishop of Ciesarea, collected from other historical works his Chronicle of ancient history. Hieronymus of Stridon translated it into Latin, in the fourth century, and others continued it. Many historical works of the Byzantines (q. v.) are also chromeles. We might merition, likewise, the Alexandrine chroniele (Chronican paschale), published by Du Fresne; also the chronicles written by monks, particularly by the diligent Benedictines, in the middle ages, some of which embraced the whole history of the world, from its beginning to their own time (as the Chronicle of Rhegino, of Otto of Freismgen, &c.); others, the history of a certain period (as Liutprand's History of lus Time, from 891 to 946), or of a single mag tion (as the History of the Franks, by Gregory of Tours; that of the Lombards.

by Panius Diaconus; the English Chroniscies, by Stow. &c.), or the history of single provinces, cities and instautions (as the Chronicle of the Abbey of St. Denis; the Chronicle of Cologne); also the history of individuals (as Eginhard's History of Charlemagne), and of single events. They have been published partly in large collections (for instance, Scriptoris Rerum Germanicarum), and, until the 13th and 14th centuries, were mostly written in Latin. Of nany of them the authors are not known. In this case, they are called after the place where they were written or where they were found.

These chronicles bear the unpression of their time, displaying the ignorance and credulity of their authors, and abounding in religious and moral reflections. We \ must adom, in their favor, however, that they are not tilled with political disquisitions and superficir reasoning, of which modern histories at ord so many instances. The chronicles of the middle ages were not written with the purpose of supporting certain principles, but generally give simple facts; on account of which they are preferable, as historical records, to many modern works. Of course, they do not equal in value the result of the deep nesearches of a Gibbon or a Nichulo men, in search of historical knowledge, ought to apply themselves more frequently to these sources, and not tras- so much to the writers who drew from them, and we can say, from experience, that they would and them very interesting reading. A'or information respecting the chronicles of the middle ages, we would refer the reader to the treates - by Rosler, in Latin, par-Loularly the preface to his Chronica Medii Æri (1798), and the directories of Freher and Adelung; Chronicle is also often used as the title of new-papers. most important of these is the (London) Morning Chromele, an excellent paper of the whig party. (Set Newspaper)

CHRONORITION, CHRONORRAM; a verse in which certain of the letters used signify Roman numbers, and indicate the year in which the event happened to which the verse relates; e. g., reges ConCeDan paCeM, where CCDCM make the number 1800. It is little used at present.

CHRONOLOGY (compounded of \(\chi\_t\).

tiffe, \(\text{rail}\) \(\delta\_{t/t}\), discourse) is the art of measuring time (see Time), distinguishing its several constituent parts, such as centuries, years, &c., by appropriate marks and characters, and adjusting these parts, in an orderly manner, to past transactions, by means of crue, epochs and

cycles, for the illustration of history. The principal means for marking the divisions of time are afforded by the motions of the heavenly bodies, particularly the sunand the moon, which produce the natural division of time into years, months and days. The necessities of life, requiring still smaller and more precise divisions of time (which can be measured only by prtificial means), gave rise to hours, number This division of time is and seconds. called the artificial. Even in the natural division, however, there is something arbitrary, as it depends solely on the will. what point in the motions of the heavenly bodies shall be taken as the point of beginning; for example, in the annual rotation of the earth, whether we shall take the longest day of summer or the shortest day of winter. The first lawgivers, therefore, fixed the exil beginning and end ofthe month, day and year, and, at the same time also, the smaller divisions of these, larger portions of time. From this separation of the natural and artificial or civil division of time, arises a division of chronology into mathematical, astronomical and historical. Astronomical chronology determines the duration of the natural portions of time by the revolutions of the heavenly bodies, historical chronology treats of the civil divisions of time, of the methods of reckoning time among different nations, of ancient periods or remarkable epochs, &c. It is obvious that each. of these divisions of chronology requires the assistance of the others. All historical chronology is grounded on the astronomed, which cannot determine the duration of the periods of time without the and of the civil division. Mathematicians and astronomers determine the matural periods of time as they are indicated by the motions of the sun and moon. It is left to legislators to determine by law on what day the year shall begin, how many days shall constitute a month, how many a work, &c. This evil regulation is the foundation of the calendar (q. v.) or alma-Thus far must astronomical chronology be connected with Instorped; but the latter only can teach us the divisions adopted by different people. Historical chronology explains, I, the form of the year among different nations, as it is regulated by lawgivers, founders of religions, and other founders of civil society: 2. those events which are selected by different nations as cras, that is, as points from which they begin their reckoming; e. g., the Yugs of the Hindoos, the era of Nabonassar, the ern of the Feleucidie, among the Chaldenns,

Syrians, Persians, Egyptians; the creation of the world, among the Jews; the birth of Christ, among Christians; the Olympiads, among the Greeks; the building of Rome and the consular era, among the Romans; the Hegira, or flight of Mohammed, among the Mohammedans, &c. As so many different cras render the reckoning of time difficult, it, Billy, selects a form of the year and an era to which it refers those of other nations, and by which it arranges the history of all nations and times. The European chronologist and historian must refer the cras and years of all people to those used in modern Europe. Mathematical and astronomical chronology is taught in the manuals of astronomy. Among these may be mentioned the . Istronomic of Lalande (2d vol. p. 270, 2d ed.) The Manand of Astronomical and Technical Chronology (from the sources) of D. L. Ideler (vol. 1, Berlin, 1825, vol. 2, 1826) is an excellent work. This savant has done much for the advancement of this science by his extensive, researches

Epoch and History) Chronomiter; a time-piece of a pecultar construction, at present much employed by nayigators in determining the longitude at sea. In general, chronometer are much larger than commen watches, and are hing in gimbals, in boxes six or eight inches square; but there are also many pocket chronometers, which, externally, have all the appearance of the better sort of poeket watches, and internally differ from these only in the construction of the balance. The balance and hair-spring are the principal agents in regulating the rate of going in a common watch, being to this what the pendulum is to a common clock; and this · spring, in the former, like the pendulina in the latter, is subject to expansions and contractions, under different degrees of heat and cold, which, of course, affect the speed or rate of the machine; and the methods of correcting this inaccuracy tpark the difference between the watch and chronometer. These are very numerous. (See Horology.) With American navigators, chronometers are more common than with those of any other na-All the lines of packets between the U. States and Europe have them.-An instrument under the name of chronometer is also used by musicians for the accurate measurement of time. Two sorts have been invented for different purposes. The first supplies the motion of a conductor, and regularly heats time. In the British Magazine (n. 283) may be found

an account of a graduated pendulum for " this purpose, proposed by doctor Robin. son; and others have since been sold at the principal music-shops in London. The second is used by tuners of instruments, to measure the velocity of beats. On this point, the reader may consult doctor Smith's Harmonics, p. 210.

('HRYSALIS. (Sec Papilio.) CHRISEIS. (See Achilles.)

CHRYSIPPUS, a Stoic philosopher of Cilicia, distinguished for his skill in duputing. He was the principal opposer of the Epicureans, and is said to have written 700 different works, mostly of a dialectical character; but of these no complete work is extant. He died, at a great

age, about 206 years B. C.

Chrysoberyl (sometimes called cymophane, and, by the jewellers, Oriental chrysolite) was, for a long tune, only known as occurring in semi-transparent, rounded pieces in the alluvial deposits of rivers, along with other species of genis. Thus, in Brazil, it was found along with the diamond and topaz, and with rubies and supplines in Ceylon. Distinct crystals were afterwards brought from Siberia, but their original situation still remains unknown. It is now known to exist, in beautifully distinct tristals, at two places in the L. States at Haddam (Conn.) and Saratoga ( ). ( ) They are found, as both these localities, in a grantic rock. The form of the crystal is, for the most part, a right rectangular prism, and a low, sixsided table (with reentering angles), formed by the crossing of three prisonatic crystals. Chrysoberyl scratches quartz; is of an olive-green color, and vitreous histre, and is often possessed of a bluish opales-Specific gravity, 3.754. composed of alumine 68.66, gluene 16.00, silex 5.99, protoxide of aron 4.73, and oxide of titumum 2.66.

CHRISOLITE: a greenish, yellowish or brownsh stone; semetimes transparent, sometimes only translucent, which possesses the power of double refraction in a high degree. It is composed of silex and magnesia. The chrysolite employed in the arts comes chiefly from the Levant, and is sometimes used in jewellery, but is not highly esteemed. Werner thinks that the yellow chry-olite of the ancients is the modern topaz:

Curt solor es, Emanuel; a distinguished Greek of Constantinople, born about the middle of the 14th century, the first who, in modern times, transplanted Grock literature into Italy. The emperor John Pakeologus sent han, m 1201, w

wand England, to ask for assistance gainst the Turks. Having thus become known in Italy, he returned there, about he year 1395, and was appointed profespor of Greck literature at Florence. He remained about three years in Florence, where he collected around him a great number of scholars, of all ages and ranks, and excited universal enthusiasm as much by his dignity, and the grace of his elocution, as by the extent of his learning. From his school proceeded Leonardo Bruno, Poggus, Francis Philelphus, and other distinguished revivers of classical · studies. He afterwards taught with equalsuccess in Milan, whence the Greek emperor Manuel, who, in 1400, had come to Italy, sent for him to Pavia. Venice, and hastly to Rome. Pope Gregory XII employed him in public affairs, and sent him. with others, to the council of Constance, where he died in 1415. He should not be confounded with his nephew and compamon in Italy, John Chrysoloras.

Chrisoston, John. St.: a celebrated father of the church, born in Antioch, in the year 344. Secundus, his father, had the command of the imperial troops in Syrm. .In those times, eloquence was still the means of obtaining the highest honors in Greece. Chrysostom studied this art, with Libanius, the most famous orator of his time, and soon excelled his master. After having studied philosophy with Andragadius, he devoted bunself to the Holy Scriptures, and determined upon quitting the world, and on consecrating his life to God in the deserts of Syria. At the age of 20, he conducted a legal case with extranslinary success; but he soon retired from public business, and, by fasting and penance, endeavored to obtain the ma-tery of his passions. He remained three years in Antioch. He was united, by the ties of an intimate friend-hip, with Basil, Theodore, afterwards bishops of Mopsuesta, and with Maximus, galesquently bishop Theodore having quitted of Seleucia. for a time his holy vocation, Chrysostom wrote two beautiful exhortations, in order to recall hum to his duty. The bishops of the provinces had determined on electing him or Basil as bishop; but Chrysostom fled, and concealed himself; consequently Bami was elected, who complained, however, much of this irond's withdrawal. Chrysostom defended himself in his beautiful work on the office of priests. He was then only 26 years old. In 374, he retired to the anchorites who dwelt on the mountalus in the vicinity of Antiock. He described the life which he led with them in

the following manner:—"They rise with ALC: NO. the first crowing of the cock, or at midnight. After having read pealms and hymns in conimon, each, in his separate cell, & occupied in reading the Holy Scriptures, or in copying books. Then they proceed to church, and, after mass, return quietly to their habitations. They never speak to each other; their nourishment is bread and salt; some add oil to it, and the invalids vegetables. After meals, they rest a few moments, and then return to their usual occupations. They till the ground, fell wood, make baskets and clothes, and wash the feet of travellers. Their bed is a mat spread on the ground : their dress consists of skins, or cloths made of the hair of goats and camels. They go barefooted, have no property, and never pronounce the words mine and thine. Undisturbed peace dwells in their habitations, and a cheerfulness scarcely known in the world." After four years, Chrysoston, quitted these hermits to seek a still greater seclusion. He dwelt in a cavern, where he remained two years without lying down. His penance and wakefulness, together with the dampness of his abode, threw him into a severe illness, which forced him to return to Antioch (381). In the same year, he was appointed deace; by the bishop of Annoch, and, in 356, consecrated priest. He was chosen vicar by the same dignitary, and commissioned to preach the word of God to the people Till then, the bishops only had instructed the people in the gospel. His clothence attracted Jows, heathers and heretics. He was, says Sozomenes, the ornainent of his church, and of the whole East, when the emperor Arcadus determined, in 397, to place him in the episcopal sec of Constantinople. To prevent the inhabitents of Antioch from opposing his intentions, the emperor caused land to be se-; cretly conveyed to Constantinople, where Theophilus, patriarch of Alexandria, ordamed him. He commenced his official labors by limiting the expenses of his house, founded and supported many hospitals, improved the morals of the clergy, and converted a number of heathers and bereties. He gave so generously to the poor, that he was universally called John the almsgiver. He devoted himself to attendance on the sick. He sent bishops as missionaries to the Goths, to the Seythans, and to Persia and Palestine. Ilis elo quence twice prévented an insurrection In 300, Chrysostom held a council in Constantinople, at which several Asiatic hishops were deposed as guilty of simony

Severin, blahop of Gabala, in Syria, dated. his journey, he arrived there, and coming to attack Chrysostom from the pulph, and ued to exert his pious zeal. He sent mistor after up the people against him; but to attack Chrysostom from the pulpk, and to stir up the people against him; but his charges were rejected as calumnies. Chrysostom had two dangerous enemicethe empress Eudoxia, whose injustice and extortions gave cause to many complaints: and Theophilus, patriarch of Alexandria, who was jealous of his influence. The latter assembled several hishops at Chalcedon, who were to investigate the complaints made against Chrysostom. But he refused to appear, alleging that they had acted against the laws of the church; and, on his part, assembled 40 bishops at Con-, obliged the old man to perform this jourstantinople. His enemies, however, prevailed. His removal was determined upon, and smetioned by Arcadrus, who banished him from the country. Chrysostom quitred the city secretly, that he might not be prevented by his adherents, and purposed retiring to Bithynia'; but the people threatened a revolt. In the following night, an earthquake gave general alarm. In this dilemma, Arcadius recalled his orders, and Eudoxia herself invited Chrysastom to return. The people accompa-med him triumphantly to the city, his enomies fled, and peace was restored, but only for a short time. A feast, attended with many heathen ceremomes, for the consecration of a statue, given by the empress, roused the zeal of the archbishop, who publicly exclaimed against it; and Endoxia, violently incensed, recalled the prelates devoted to her will, and Chrysostom was condemned, although 10 bishops declared themselves in his faygr. Areadus officied the soldiers to force funt from the church, which was profuned and stained with blood. Pope Innocent I and the emperor Honorus declared themselves in favor of Chrysostom, but Areadus refused to assemble the council, on which the others insisted, and commanded Chrysostom peremptorily to retue to the place of his banishment. He obeyed, and was conveyed to Nice, in Bithyma (404). Soon after his departure, the church and the palace where the senate used to assemble became a prey to the flames. Many works of art were lost in this conflagration, which the emperor attributed to the friends of Chrysostom. The Isaurians and Huns laid waste the empire. Chrysostom's return was universally desired; Arcadius remained inflexible. doxia died soon after Chrysostom's banishment, after having fixed upon the little Armonian town Cucusus, in the wilds of Taurus, for his abode. Exhausted by sickness, deprivations, and the fatigues of vol. iii.

wrote 17 letters to Olympias, all of which are moral dissertations. He likewise addressed to her his work entitled, "None can injure him who does not injure him? self." All Christendom beheld the pions: sufferer with love and admiration; at which the emperor, exasperated, commanded him to be conveyed to the shores. of the Pontus Euxinus, to the town of Pityont, situated on its most distant borders. The officers who had him in charge ney on foot, with his head uncovered, in. the burning heat of the san; but he fell a prey to exhaustion. In Comana, in Pontus, he was brought to the oratory of the martyr St. Basil. He put on white garments, received the cucharist, uttered a fervent prayer, which he closed, as usual, with the words "Praise be to God for all thing," crossed himself, and expired (407), 63 years old. His body was interred at the side of that of St. Basil; but, in 438, it was conveyed solemnly to Constantinople, and there interred in the church of the apostles, in the sepulchre of the emperor. At a later period, his remains were placed in the Vatican at Rome. The Greek church celebrates his feast on the 13th of November, the Roman on the 27th of January. The name of Chrysostom (golden-monthed) was assigned to him, after his death, to express the eloquence which: he possessed in so much greater a degree than the other fathers of the church. He never repeats himself, and is always original. The vivacity and power of his imagination, the force of his logic, his power of arousing the passions, the beauty and accuracy of his comparisons, the neatness and purity of his style, his clearness and sublimity, place him on a level with the most celebrated Greek authors: the Christian church has not a more accomplished orator.—The mest accurate Greek edition of his works is that of Henry Saville (1612, 9 vols. fol.); the most complete Greek and Latin, is that of Montfaucon (Paris, 1618, 13 vols. fol.) Professor Neander, at Berlin, has written a biography of this father of the church, or rather a history of him and his time, entitled S. Chrysostom, a highly ceteerfied works full of the important results of the deep rescarches of its learned author.

CHUBB, Thomas; a writer in humble life, who obtained great temporary disfunction as a controversialist. born at East Hadham, near Salisbury, and

.4772 was instructed only in reading, writing probably only fortifications to secure the and accounts. He was apprenticed to a glover, but, at length, became journey man to a tallow-chandler, and employed his · leieure in the acquisition of knowledge, from the best English books which he could procure. In 1715, he published The Supremacy of the Father asserted, &c., the perspicuity and argumentative skill of which obtained for it much notice. Of course, a production, assuling a part of the orthodox faith, did not pass without reply, and a controversial warfare commenced, which lasted as long as his life. In 1730, he offered to the world his thoughts on a variety of topics, moral and theological, in 34 tracts, collected in a 4to. volume, of which book Pope, in a letter to Gay, speaks with great respect. Various publications followed, c. g. A Discourse concerning Reason. The true Gospel of Jesus Christ asserted. Inquiry into the Ground and Foundation of Religion, &c., which manifest his disposition to question many points of orthodoxy. He, however, adhered to the general conclusion, that Jesus was sent from God as an instructer to mankind, and regularly attended public worship at his parish church until his death. Chubb seems never to have sought to emerge from the humble condition in which fortune had placed him, although he met with some powerful patrons. He died sud lenly in February, 1747, aged 6.

CHULUCANAS: the name of an ancient runed city of Peru, on the ridge of the Cordilleras, at the height of 8943 for above the level of the sea, and on the Paramo of Chulucanas, between the Indian villages of Ayavaca and Guancabanda. boldt says, that the great causty of the Incas, fined with freestone-one of the most useful and stependon- work- ever executed by man, and which may be compared with the finest Roman road- is still in good preservation, between Chulucanas, Guamam and Sagrque; and Trancisco Coreal found it perfect in two other places, and states that it yields in nothing to the most magnificent European road It runs from Quito, through Cuzco, to La Plata, or from the equator to 20° of S. lat-On the summit of the Andes, wherever this road passes, runs of great buildings at every where seen. Humboldt counted ume in iess than half a degree of latitude; and Pedre de Cieca de Leon, who wrote in 1541, describes several which he saw in the province or Los Canares. They are now called, by the Peruviana, palaces of the Incas, but were

conquests of Quito and Chile.

CHUQUIBACA, Or LA PLATA; a city of South America, and capital of Bolivia; lat. 19° 40' S.; lon. 66° 46' W.; population, 18,000. The inhabitants consist of Indians and Spaniards. It stands on a plain, environed by eminences, which defend it from all winds. The temperature of the air, in summer, is very mild; nor is there any considerable difference throughout the year. The houses have one story besides the ground floor. They are covered with tiles, and are very roomy and convenient, with delightful gardens, planted with European fruit-trees; but water is so scarce as hardly to supply the necessary purposes of life, and is brought from the several public fountains dispersed in the different parts of the city.-The town had the name of La Plata from its being built near silver naties. It was erected into a bishopric in 1551, the place having then the title of city, and, in 1608, was raised to an archbishopric. The cathedral is large, of good architecture, and finely adorned with paintings and gildings. The city has also a university, dedicated to St. Francis Xaver, the chars of which are filled indifferently with secular clergy or laymen; but the rector was formerly always a Jesun.

CHUR. (See Coire.)

CHURCH is, in the widest sense of the word, the collective body of those who declare themselves to be followers of Christ. In this sense, the founder of the church is Jesus Christ himself; for, though his followers did not separate themselves from the community of the synagogue until atter his death, yet he had, by preaching a doctrine essentially different from Judaism, and by collecting disciples and friends around him, laid the foundation of a new religious body. Moreover, he ordered his disciples, at the time of his departure from the world, to go torth and preach the gospel through the earth, and established two religious ceremonies, by which his followers were to be distinguished. These circumstances, mamy have thought, must be taken as indicating his intention to found a church. Judaism, too, may be considered as having paved the way for the establishment of a Christian church or organized religious community.-But the word church is not so often taken in the sense just described as in a much narrower one, in which it signifies a body of Christians, which differs in doctrines, constitution and usages from the remainder. From the 11th ceu-

183.

tury, the Greek or Oriental Christians were separated from the Latin Christians, or Christians of the West; and thus originated the difference between the Greek Catholic church, whose chief is the patriarch of Constantinople, and the Roman Catholic church, whose chief is the Roman bishop, or the pope. In the 16th century, the reformation caused another division in the Western church, one part of its members seceding from the government of the Roman see, and adopting different doctrines from those professed by the rest. Thus arose the difference between the Catholic and Protestant churches. It might reasonably be asked, whether some Protestant sects do not differ front each other as much as from the Catholic church; for instance, the Quakers from the Eughsh Episcopal church. But, for the purpose of this article, it is sufficient that, in the common use of language, they are all called Protestants. There is, moreover, one point which distinguishes all Protestant sects, or the whole Protestant church, from the two Catholic ones, namely, that the Protestants declare the Bible their only ground of behef, and permit it to be freely read and examined into.-In a third sense, the word church is sometimes used for the whole Christian community of a country, e.g., the Funch church, Italian church, &c.—In a foorling sense, this word signifies the building in which Christians assemble for the worship of God. The Christians of the 1st century worshipped in private houses, or in the open air, in remote places, because they were not acknowledged by the state, and were often persecuted. It was not till the 3d century, that they could venture to give more publicity to their service, and to build churches. Since the 4th century, the churches have become large and maginficent edifices. Such were crected by Constantine and, more particularly, by Theodosus and Justinian. Many heathen temples, also, were changed into Christian In the middle ages, many churches. splendid edifices were creeted for the performance of divine service, which, in loftmess and grandeur, were never surpassed. Some of the most famous churches at present are St. Peter's, at Rome; Notre Dame, at Paris; St. Stephen's, at Vienna; the church of Isaac, at St. Petersburg; the musters at Strasburg and Cologue; and St. Paul's church, in London. (See Cathedrals.) Excepting the last mentioned edifice, Protestantism has produced no very splendid church. In fact, the Protestants, in the construc-

tion of their places of worship, seem to have had almost exclusively in view the accommodation of the hearers, particularly in England and America. This fact is easily explained from the circumstance that they do not celebrate, in their churches, divine service, in the sense in which the Catholics use the phrase, but chiefly meet to hear the Bible explained to them, and to be instructed in their duties; on account of which the churches of a large portion of Protestants are often, or even usually, called meeting-houses, and their sermons discourses.—In New England, the word church is used to denote the members of a religious society, who have made a public profession of the Christian religion, in contradistinction to the other individuals belonging to the same reli-. gious society, who have not made such a profession.—There are various derivations of the word church, which, of course, has the same origin with the German Kirche, and the Scottish kirk. Some derive it from the Greek arounds. from approx. lord, a house appropriated for the service : of the Lord. Others think the German word is a translation of the Latin ecclesia, in which case it would be derived from kuren, to elect, and imply the idea of the elect people of God.

A- it is the natural course of things that the different branches, powers, or, in general, the component parts of every establishment, are at first confounded, and separated only by degrees, with the progress of improvement, and after long struggles, so it has been with the church and the state. The violent contentions which took place at first between the emperor of Germany, who considered himself emperor of Christendom, and the pope, were repeated int many countries, and still continue in some. It would far exceed our limits to give even asketch of these disputes, and of the theories which have been advanced on the different sides respecting this question: we will only mention, that, in all Protestant countries, the monarchs have usurped the highest ecclesiastical power, without any support from history or Scripture. Three equally untenable theories have been advanced to justify this assumption:-1. the episcopal system, so called, according to which the episcopal rights are said to have been transferred to the sovereign by the reformation; 2. the territorial system, which maintains that the worldly ruler is, ipso facto, spiritual chief of the church of his country; 3. the collegial system, which considers the members of a church as a society, whose rights rest upon a contract, by which a part of them has been · conferred upon the sovereign. History and reason prove how unfounded these theories are, which are properly to be con-sidered as defences of usurpation. The United States of America are the only · Christian country in which there is no ethblished religion; but, notwithstanding all the advantages springing from this state of things, it is not entirely free from evils.—The revenue of the church is a subject of great importance in political • becoming. The following table, showing the annual amount of the income of the clergy in all parts of the Christian world, ' is copied from the Catholic Miscellany. It will be perceived, that the revenue of the clergy of Great Britain, according to this statement, is greater, by £44,000 sterhng, than that of all the other Christian clergy in the known world; while the number of hearers attending on their ministry, compared with the aggregate number belonging to the Christian flocks in other nations, is as 1 to 32.

	Amount.	Hearers.
French Catholic and P	rot-	
estant churches, £	1,050,000	4 30,000 000
United States,	776,000	9,600,000
Spain,   Sunder their   Count tutional   Portugal,   Portugal   Po	1,000,000	11,000,000
Portugal, Several entry	300,000	3,000,000
Hungary, Catholice,	220,000	3,000,000
Calvinists,	63,000	1,050,000
- Lutherans,	26,000	650,000
Italy,	· 776,000	19,391,000
Austria,	930,000	16,915,000
Switzerland,	47,000	1.720,000
Prussa,	527,000	10,563,000
German small st tes,	765,000	12,765,000
Holland,	160,000	2,000,000
Netherlands,	105,000	3,000,000
Denmark,	119,000	1,700,000
Sweden,	234,000	3,371,000
Russia, Greek church,	510,000	34 000,000
Cath and Luth	. 450,000	(46),(40),23
Christians in Turkey.	180,000	6,000,000
elsewhere,	520,000	21,000,000
£	8,852,000	194,725,000
England, Wales, and Ireland.	H,496,000	6,100,000

\*Church, Eastern. (See Greek Church.) CHURCH OF ENGLAND. (See England, Cherch of.)

H.852,000

inhed clergy of the whole Chris-

tian world beside,

Balance in favor of )

the English clergy, £44,000

Church, Latin, or Western. (See Roman Catholic Church.)

CHURCH, ROMAN CATHOLIC. (See Ro-

Church, Fathers of the (paires ecclesia); truchers and writers of the ancient church, who flourished after the time of the apostles and apostolic fathers (the inmediate disciples of the apostles), from the 2d to the 6th century. This name is also sometimes given to the teachers and writers of the following centuries, down to the schoolmen, who begin with the 12th century. A large number of their writings have been preserved, and have been published by modern scholars. knowledge of their lives and their works constitutes a particular science, called patristics. The fathers of the church introduced the Greek and Roman learning into Christian treatises, and many of them were as able as they were learned. Most of the earlier fathers of the church, before their conversion to Christianity, were rhetoricians or advocates, which accounts for several peculiarities, as well in their method of disputing as in their style. The object of their writings is to defend the Christian religion and the Christian commumity, refute the Jews, pagans and heretics, explain the Holy Scriptures, set forth the doctrines of their faith, and the rules of their morality, also the history of Christrainty and the Christian church, and impart instruction to the people. The contents of these wintings, therefore, are apologene, exegene, dogmatic, moral, historical, polemical, or ascence. The fathers of the church are divided into two chief classes, Latin and Greek. The most celebrated among the Greek fathers are, Clement of Alexandria, the first who plulo-ophized on Christianity; Origen, distinguished for his homilies and his apologetic and evegetic writings; Ensebius, who wrote the first history of Christianity; Athanasus, who had a decided influence upon the formation of the Christian dogmas; and Chryso-tom, the most admired of the ancient Christian orators. most distinguished among the Latin fathers are, Tertulhan, a writer of great originality; Augustine, a main of a peculiar and vehement mind, the oracle of the Western church; Ambrose, distinguished as a Christian orator; and Jerome, a man of much learning, and particularly happy in explaining the Holy Scriptures, whose efforts, however, contributed much to awaken in the West an admiration for the renunciation of the world and the CHURCH, GREER. (See Greek Church.) celibacy of priests. The fathers of the

church are now very much studied by the German Protestants, and many parts of their works have been translated. We do not hesitate to say that they are too little studied in England, as well as in the U. States, containing, as they do, great stores of knowledge relating to the early history of Christianity, and elucidating its character. The work of doctor Neander, Denkwürdigkeiten aus der Geschichte des Christenthums und des Christlichen Lebens (Berlin, 1825—6), in which great use has been made of the writings of the fathers, affords abundant ovidence of their value.

Church Music. (See Music, Sacred.) CHURCH, STATES OF THE; the pope's dominous in Italy. They originated with the grant of Pepin, king of the Franks, in 754, who bestowed on Stephen II, Inshop of Rome, some districts, which the Lombards, against whom Stephen II solicited Pepm's assistance, had taken from the exarchate. Charlemagne confirmed this grant in 774, and, in return, received the title of Roman emperor from Leo III, in 500. The suspicious charters of Louis-le-Debonnaire, Otho I and Henry II, the genuineness of which the papal chamberlam, Marino Marini, has lately (Rome; 1822) endeavored to establish, are the only proofs of these grants of Pepin and Charlemagne to the popes. The temporal power of the popes over the States of the Church, or the dominion of St. Peter, is. founded on these documents, of which there only exists a copy, received of the papal chamberlain Cancio, towards the end of the 12th century. The wise policy of the papes, in conferring favors on the Normans in Lower Italy, secured to them, in these tassals, stanch protectors of the holy see. The structure of the papal power was fully completed in 1075, under Gregory VII. The crusades contributed more to promote the views of the popes in the commencement than in the sequel. The dominions of Mathikia (q. v.) were added to the States of the Church, and the popes maintained possession of them against all the claims of the German emperors. The papal chair removed a dangerous neighbor belonging to the house of Hohenstauten, by raising the house of Anjou to the throne of Naples, in the year 1265. The tyramy of the heads of the church, added to their corrupt life, at last provoked the Romans to opposition, and the popes were obliged to transfer their residence, from 1305 till 1376, to Avignon, which Clement VI bought of Joanna, queen of Naples and countess of Provence, in 1348. As the choice of the

popes made under the influence of the king of France seldom or never obtained seent of the Romans and Germans antipopes were elected by the latter, and the welfare of the church, as well as of the state, suffered by their mutual hostilities. The return of the popes to Rome was favorable to the aggrandizement of their power, although the German councils often expressed themselves in bold and independent language. Julius II added Bologna to the papal dominions in 1513, and Ancoua in 1532. The Venetians were obliged to cede Ravenna. Ferrara ,was wrested from Modena in 1598, and Urbino was bequeathed to the papal chair, m 1626, by its last duke, Francis Maria, of the house of Rovera. At the same time, the popes lost a great part of their temporal and spiritual influence, to the diminution of which the rapid progress of the reformation from the year 1517, greatly contributed. The wise administration of Sixtus V restored internal order towards, the end of the 16th century; but the extravagance and family partialities of this successors created fresh disorder. Clement XIV was forced to abolish the order of the Jesuits, in 1773. Subsequently, Naples renounced her feudal obligations to the papal chair, and even the journey of Prus VI to Vienna, in 1782, could not prevent the great changes which Joseph II was making in the ecclesiastical affairs of his kingdom. After the successes of the I'rench in Italy, the pope was forced, at the peace of Tolentmo, Feb. 13, 1797, to cede Avignon to France, and Romagna, Bologna and Ferrara to the Cisalpine republic. An msurrection in Rome against the French, Dec. 28, 1797, caused the occupation of the city, Feb. 10, 1798, and the annevation of the States of the Church to the Roman republe. Plus VI died in France. The victories of the Russians and Austrians in Italy favored the election of popel Paus VII, March 14, 1800, who, under the protection of Austrian troops, took possession of Rome. By the concordat concluded, in 1801, with the first consul of the French republic, the pope again lost a great part of his temporal power. In 1807, the holy father was urged to introduce the Code Napoleon, and to declare war against England. He refused; and, on the 3d of April, France was declared to be at war with the pope, and the provinces of Ancona, Urbano, Macerata and Camerino were added to the kingdom of Italy. The possessions of the church beyond the Apennines were all that remained to the. pope. (See the correspondence of Pius

VII with Napoleon, in Staudlin's Historical the five ports, Rome, Cività Verchia, Archives of the States of the Church, 1 vol., 1815.) Feb. 2, 1808, a Frinch corps of 8009 mon entered Rome; the remainder of the papal states were added to France, and a pension of 2,000,000 of 'franca settled on the pope, whose ecclesiastical power was to continue. The decree of May 17, 1809, at length put an end to the coefesiastical state. The pope was detained in France until the events of 1814 again permitted him to take possession of his states. (See Pius VII) The States of the Church (State della Chiesa) 17,185 square miles, with 2,460,000 mbab- c itants, occupying 90 towns, 212 marketplaces, and \$500 villages-are smatted in the centre of Italy, between Lorabardy, Tuscany, Naples, and the Tuscan and Adriatic seas. The Apertines (which include the Somma, 6800 ft., and Velmo, 7872 if, high) traver∞ the country from N. W. to S. E. The rivers are small, with the exception of the Po (which touches the northern boundary, and forms the marshes of Commachio) and its feanches. The most considerable is the Tiber, navigable from Perugia. Pope Leo XII Genga's reigned from 1823 till 17cb 15, 1829. Pius VIII (cardinal Castighone, succeeded him. The revenue is estimated at 12 millions, and the national debt at 200 nallions of florms. There is a standing army of 9000 men. The new consists of 2 fingates and a few small vessels. The emperor of Austria has the right to giantson the citadel of Fernara. Internal tranquillay is not yet restored. In 1816, the States of the Church, with the exception of Rome, Tivoh and rubaco, which are under the immediate administration of the pope, were divided into 17 delegations. which, when under the government of cardinals, are called legations. Protestants, Greeks and Jews are tolerated. The teligious orders and the Jesuits have been reestablished, as was also, in 1826, the university of Urbino. This fertile country is not very well governed. It pro-. duces all kinds of corn, the finest fromsuch as oranges, lemons, tigs, dates, &c ; a great quantity of oil, good wines, and mulberries, &c. The hills are covered with thick forests: the finest murble is found here: and there are, likewise, traces of rarious metals; but these advantages are not sufficiently estimated. Mining is mot known; agriculture is neglected; but the breeding of cattle and sheep is more carefully attended to. Manufactures are limited to Rome, Bologna, Ancona and Morcia. In 1894, 3630 vessels entered

Ancie, Terracine and Ancona, of which 1052 belonged to the papal, and 2267 to the other Italian states. The fair of Sini-

gaglia is much frequented.

Unuacu, Benjamin, who distinguished himself in the Indian wars of New England, was born at Duzbury, Massachusetts, in 1639. He was one of the most active and indefatigable opponents of the Indian' king Philip, and was once very near losing his life, while in pursuit of him. He commanded the party which killed Philip, in August, 1676. In 1704, the spirit of the old warrior was roused by the burning of Decrield, and he immediately rode 70 miles on holeback, to tender his services to governor Dudley. The offer being accepted, he undertook an expedition against the eastern shore of New England, and inflicted considerable injury upon the Urench and Indians. The rupture of a blood-vessel, occasioned by a full from his horse, put an end to his life, Jan. 17, 1718, in the 78th year of his age. He published a narrative of king Philip's war, 1716; and left a character of great integrity and piety.

Unt Rentle, John, duke of Marlborough, a distinguished general and statesman, was the son of sir Winston Churchill, and was born at Ashe, in Devonshire, in 1650. He received his education at home, under & clergyman, from whom he derived bittle instruction, but imbibed a strong attachment for the church of England. At the age of 12, he was taken to court, and became page to the duke of York, and, at received tion, him a pair of colors.
 The first engagement at which he was present was the siege of Tangier, which seems to have decided him in his choice of a profession. On his return, he remained for some time about the court, and, being very handsome, was a great favorite with the ladies there. The king's mistress, the duchess of Cleveland, in particular, was much attached to him, and presented him with £5,000, with which he purchased a life amounty. In 1672, he accompanied the duke of Monmonth, as captain of grenadiers, when the duke went with a body of auxiliaries to the continent, to assist the French against the Dutch. He there fought under the great Turenne, with whom he went by the marie of the handsome Englishman. At the siege of Maestricht, he distinguished himself so highly as to obtain the public thanks of the king of France. On his return to fingland, he was made lieutenantcolonel; also gentleman of the bed-chamher and master of the robes to the duke

of York, whom, in 1679, he accompanied to the Netherlands, and afterwards, in 1680, to Scotland, where he was much noticed by those who wished to pay their court to the duke. In 1680, he had a regiment of dragoons presented to him, and martied miss Sarah Jennings, a lady of great beauty and good family, an attendant upon the princess, afterwards queen, Anne. By this union he materially strengthened his interest at court, his lady proving a valuable helpmate in all his schemes for advancement. In 1682, he was shipwrecked, with the duke of York, • in their passage to Scotland; on which event he received a great proof of the dake's regard, who used every offort to, save him, while many persons of quality perished. In the same year, through the emiterest of his master, he obtained the title of baron of Eyemouth, and a colonelev in the guards. On the accession of James II, he was sent ambassador to France, and, soon after his return, was created baron Churchill of Syndridge, and, the same year, suppressed the rebellion of the duke of Monmouth. During the remainder of this reign, he acted with great prudence and a strict attention to his own interest; and, on the arrival of the prince of Orange, joined him at Axiomster, with the duke of Grafion, and some other others. His conduct in this affair has been severely consured as ungrateful; but his own apology (and there is no reason to dispute it) was his attachment to the Protestant cause, and the dictates of his conscience. On the accession of Williams and Mary, in 1689, he was rewarded for his zan in then cause by the carldom of Mariborough, and appointed commander-in-chief of the English army in the Low Countries. The following year, he served in he land, where he reduced Cork, and other places. 1692, he experienced a great reverse in his sudden dismissal from all his employments, followed by his commitment to the Tower on the charge of high treason. He soon obtained his release; but the evidence against him was never legally produced, and the author of the accusations, then a prisoner, being convicted of perjury, he was entirely acquitted. By the publication of Mr. Macpherson's state-papers, however, it appears that the suspi-

cions were not altogether without founda-

tion, and that a correspondence probably existed between the earl of Marlborough

and lord Godolphin, having for its object

the restoration of the banished king. How-

ever this may have been, during the life

of queen Mary, the carl seems to have

kept away from count; and, aided by his countees, exerted great influence over the princess Anne, which circumstance, per-haps, prevented his intrigues from being strictly examined. On the death of queen Mary, he was made a privy counsellor, and appointed governor to the young duke of Gloucester; and, in 1709, was created by king William communder-in-chief of the English forces in Holland, and also ambassador plenipotentiary to the States-General. Still greater honors awaited him on the accession of queen Anne, in 1702; when he was created captain-general of all the forces at home and abroad, and sent plenipotentiary to the Hague, where he was also made captain-general by the States. In the campaign of the same year, he took several strong towns, among which was Liege, for which he received the thanks of both houses, and was created duke of Marlborough, with a pension granted, by the queen, for his life: and, moreover, carried a motion for the augmentation of the army abroad, by taking 10,000 foreign soldiers into British pay. The famous battle of Hochstadt, or Blenhem, was fought on the 2d of August, 1704, between the allied army, commanded by the duke of Marlborough and prince Eugene, and the French and Bavarians, headed by marshal Tallard and the elector of Bayaria. The victory was complete: Tallard was taken prisoner, and the electorate of Bavaria/became the prize of the conquerors. The nation tetitled its grantiade to the duke by the gifts of the honor of Woodstock and hundred of Wotton, and erected a palace for him, one of the finest seats in the kingdom. Medals were struck in honor of the event, which Addison also celebrated in his poem of the Campaign. After the next campaign, which was mactive, he visited the courts of Berlin, Hanover and Venice, and his conciliating manners, great prudence, and perfect command of himself, contributed to render him as successful in has negatiations as in the field. The new emperor, Joseph, invested him with the title of prince of the empire, which was accompanied by a present of the principality of Mindelheim. On the victory of Ramillies, a bill was passed to settle his honors upon the male and female issue of his daughters. He flext visited the German courts in the alliance, and wanted upon Charles XII of Sweden, then in Saxony. His reception was cold and reserved, yet he had sufficient penetration to perceive that the king would not interfere with the albed powers. In the campaign

of 1707, his antagonist was the famous duke de Vendôme, over whom he gained no advantage. He was also disappointed in his endeavors to rouse the confederacy into more activity. On his return to Eng-. land, he found that the duchess was out of favor with the queen; and though he was , received with the usual attentions, yet it was evident his popularity at court was on the decline. In 1708, in conjunction with prince Eugene, he gained the battle of Oudenard, and pushed the victory so far, that the French king entered into a negotiation for peace, which was of no effect. Villar at Malplaquet; but this action was attended with great slaughter on both sides, the allies losing 18,000 men, which. loss was but ill repaid by the capture of Mons. The prevalence of the tories in England rendered the French war impopular, and the preaching and prosecution of Sacheverel created a sensation unfavorable to its continuance. On the next visit of the duke to England, he found that the duchess, by her great arrogance, had so disgusted the queen, that a total breach had ensued; and though he was sull received with public honors, he could by no means boast of his former influence. Early in 1710, he returned to the army, and, with prince Eugene, gained another victory over Villars, and took the towns of Dougy, Are and St. Venant. During his absence, a new ministry was chosen, composed of men hostile to him and his views, and, on his return, he was consequently expected to resign, but this he would not do, and, desembling his indigmation, again repaired to the field, and signalized lamself by the capture of Bouchain. Finding that he would not resign his command, it was taken from him. and a prosecution was even commenced against him for applying the public mosey to private purposes. Disgusted by this gross ingratitude, he upaired to the Low Countries, where he was received with the greatest honor. He returned a short time before the queen's death, and, on the accession of George I, was restored to favor, and reinstated in the supreme inditary command. The last public transaction, in which he took a part, was the defeat of the rebelhon, in 1715, in which his advice was takeh. Retiring from all public employments, his mental faculties gradually decayed, and, falling into second childhood, he died at Windsor Lodge, in 1722, in the 73d year of his age, leaving four daughters, who married into families of the first distinction. He was

rather a man of solid sense than of genius. and was gifted with great coolness and self-possession. He was not even moderately conversant in literature, but so well versed in all courtly arts, that he always, acquitted himself with honor in the delicate negotiations in which he was employed. His proficiency in the graces is said by lord Chesterfield to have been the chief cause of these successes. But his fame rests chiefly upon his military talents, of which he gave most illustrious proofs. As regards his morals, he seems to have Jeen much guided by integet; and it does In 1700, he defeated marshal not appear that he ever ceased intriguing with the Stuart family, whose restoration seemed at one time far from improbable. Neither does his connexion with the whigs appear to have been sincere, for, according to Macpherson, he held a correspondence with lord Bohngbroke, hoping to be restored to power through the influence of the tory immetry. His avarice was equally notorious with his ambition; yet it does not appear that he ever made an unjust use of his ascendency His political enemy, the celebrated earl of Peterborough, pronounced his eulogy in these words: "He was so great a man that I have forgotten his faults"-a sentence which, upon the whole, tolerably well conveys the judgment of posterity. His duchess has been almost equally celebrated for her boundless ambition and avarice. She died in 1744, having amassed immense riches. She presented Mr. Hooke with £5,000 to write a book, entitled In Agount of the Conduct of the Dowager Huches of Mariborough, and bequeathed 2500 to Meliet to write the life of the duke! In 1758, a selection of curious papers vas published by lord Hailes, under the title of The Opinions of Sarah Duchess of Marlborough. The duches was the Alossa in Pope's Suire on Wo-

> Circ ke iffer, Charles, a poet and satured of great temporary fame, was the son of the curate of St. John's, Westminster, in which parish he was born, in 1731. He was effucated at Westminster school, but made so had a use of his time, that he was refused admission at the university of Oxford, from his want of classical knowledge. He accordingly returned to school, but soon closed his education by an improdent marriage with a young lady in the neighborhood. He, however, studred in private, and was at length admitted into holy orders by the hishop of London, and received a Welsh curacy of £30 a year. In order to increase this scanty in-

come, he engaged in the sale of cider, but, being little adapted for trade, soon became insolvent. Returning to London, on the death of his father, he obtained his curacy : but, owing to the smallness of his income, and, most likely, to his fondness for theatrical amusements and the company of the wits of the day, he was soon overwhelmed with debt. A composition with his creditors being effected by the humane mediation of doctor Lloyd, the second master of Westminster school, he began to think of seriously exerting the talents which he was conscious that he possessed. Under the title of the Rosciad, a poem, published first in March, 1761, without a many, he examined the excellences and defects of the actors in the two houses in London, with equal spirit, judgment and vivacity. The language and versification too, although sometimes careless and unequal, were far superior to the ordinary strum of current poetry in strength and energy, and the entire production bore the stamp , of no common talents. The celebrity of this poem was very great, and the players very weakly increased it by the impatience with which they resented its censures, Pamphlets abounded on both sides of the question; and the author justified limiself in a new satire, entitled the Apology, in which the profession of a player was treated with humorous contempt. These, works made han many enemies, for which be cared very little, as they brought him the far more dangerous intimacy and applause of the men of wit and pleasure about the town. A course of dissipation and intemperance followed, which excited much aumundversion, and cheited from him his next saure, entitled Night. Cock-lane impostine, also, formed a topic for his muse, and he hesitated not to sati-rize doctor Johnson, in the piece entitled the Ghost. He next fell in with the national ill fumor against the Scotch, which originated in the political occurrences of the commencement of the reign of George III, by his Prophecy of Famine, a Scotch pastoral, being a most aermionious, yet strongly-drawn carreature of Scottish disadvantages. This poem was received with great avidity, and he immediately took that · runk as a political satirist, which he long maintained, at the expense of candor and decorum, and to the deterioration of both his poetical and moral character. Of the latter, indeed, he now became utterly careless; and, dropping the elerical habit, he parted from his wife, and even distinguished himself in the fashionable art of seduction. Being now a party writer by

1 . 1 . . . profession, he cultivated an acquaintance with Mr. Wilkes, and employed his pen assiduously in the cause of opposition, and for his own emolument. Besides the works already mentioned, he published, within three or four years, an Epistle to Hogarth, the Conference, the Duellist, the Author, Gotham, the Candidate, the Times, Independence, and the Journey. Most of these pieces contain detached pictures, which display a vigorous fancy and forcible sentiments, expressed with great occasional energy. In versification, Churchill avowedly imitated Dryden; and when he writes with care, he well exemplifies his appreciation of his model; but he wrote too hastily not to injure his composition by prosaic lines, and he frequently passed off his carelesaness for design. Towards the end of the year 1764, he was seized with a fever, and died on the 4th of November, the same year, at the age of 34.

(HURCH-YARD. (See Burying-Places and Cemetery.)

CHYLE. (See Chyme.)

CHYME, in animal economy. In the process of digestion, the food is subjected to a temperature usually above 90° of Fahrenheit. It is mixed with the gastric juice, a liquor secreted by the glands of the stomach, and is made to undergo a moderate and alternate pressure, by the contraction of the stomach itself. It is thus converted into a soft, uniform mass, of a grayish color, in which the previous texture or nature of the abment can be no longer distinguished. The chyme, as this pulpy mass into which the food in the stomach is resolved is termed, passes by the pylorus into the intestinal canal, where it is imped with the pancreatic juice and the bile, and is still exposed to the same temperature and alternating pressure. The thinner parts of it are absorbed by the slonder tubes termed the lacteals. liquor thus absorbed is of a white color: it passes through the glands of the mesentery, and is at length conveyed by the thoracic duct into the blood. This part of the process is termed chylification, and the white honor thus formed, chyle. It is an opaque, milky fluid, mild to the taste. By standing for some time, one part of it coagulates; another portion is coagulated by heat. The chyle, after mixing with the lymph conveyed by the absorbent vessels, is received into the blood, which has returned from the extreme wessels, before this passes to the heart. All traces of it are very soon lost in the blood, as it mixes perfectly with that fluid. It is probable, however, that its nature is not immediately

completely altered. The blood passing from the heart is conveyed to the lungs, where it circulates over a very extensive surface presented to the atmospheric air, with the intervention of a very thin membrane, which does not prevent their mutual action. During this circulation, the blood loses a considerable quantity of . carbon, part of which, it is probable, is derived from the imperfectly assimilated chyle, as this, originating in part from vegetable matter, must contain carbon in larger proportion than eyen the blood itself.

CIBBER, Colley, a dramatic writer and actor, born in London, 1671, served under the duke of Devonshire, in the revolution which placed the prince of Orange on the throne, and then made his appearance at Drury-lane theatre. He was not at first very successful; but, at length, the talent which he displayed in the character of Fondlewife, in the Old Bachelor of Congreve, brought him into notice. In 1605, appeared his first coniedy, Love's last Shift, which met with great success. In this piece, he played the part of Novelty, a fashionable fop. This character is found in most of his pieces, and in the representation of it lie was likewise distinguished. His dramatic celebrity is founded chiefly on the Careless Husband, which even obtained the approbation of his declared enemy, Pope. This piece is, indeed, without novely in the characters, and without invention in the plot, but it is a good, picture of the manners and follies of the time. His comedy the Nonjuror, an mutation of Tartuffe, adapted to English manners, appeared in 1717, and was directed against the Jacobites. It was very successful, and procured him a pension from the court, but drew upon him hany enemies, whose number he increased by his conduct as director of Drury-lane theatre, from 1711. His appointment as quoet-laureate, 17:30, gave full play to the raillery of his enemies. Cibber had the good sense to join in the laugh against his own verses, and thus to disarm them. Pope, however, did not cease to ridicule him on every opportunity. In 1750, he quitted the theatre, and published the Apology for the Lafe of Colley Cibber, &c., written with spirit and candor, and containing many entertaining anecdotes and judicious remarks. died in 1757.

CIBBIR, Theophilus, son of the subject of the preceding article, was born in 1703, and embraced the profession of an actor. With respect to personal appearance, nature had not been more favorable to him than to his father; but his intelligence and vivacity in his performances compensated for his deficiencies, and he would have been successful on the stage if his extravagance had not continually involved him' in difficulties. He was engaged, in 1757, to play at a Dublin theatre, but was shipwrecked on his passage, and drowned. The Biography of English and Irish Poets, which appeared under his name, was from the pen of Robert Shiels, a Scotchman, who purchased, for 10 guineas, the right of prefixing to the work the name of Cibber, then in prison for debt.--Cibber's wife, Susanna Maria, born 1716, was one of the best actresses on the English stage. She was sister of the celebrated doctor Arne (composer of Rule Britannia), who taught her music, and introduced her, in one of his operas, at the Haymarket theatre. In 1734, she married Theophihis Cibber, but was soon after separated from hun. She subsequently made her appearance in tragedy. Her beauty and her talents gained her universal admiration. She died in 1766.

CIBORIUM; originally, a drinking-vessel made from an Egyptian plant. In the Roman church, it is the vessel in which the consecrated host (the renerabile) is preserved.

CICADA. (See Grashopper.) CICERO, Marcus Tulhus. This cele-brated Roman was born in the year of Rome 647 (106 B. C.), at Arpinum. His family belonged to the order of equites, but had always kept thenselves aloof from public business and office. His father, who lived in retirement, devoted to science, was the friend of the first citizens of the regulate. Amongst this number was the celebrated orator Crassus, who lanself attended to the education of the young Cicero and his brother Quintus, selected teachers for them, and directed their studies. The perusal of the Greek authors, together with poetry, oratory and philosophy, occupied the first years of Urcero's youth. He wrote a great deal in Greek. His versification was good, but his portical ments, on the whole, only moderate. His destination was, to be the first orator of Rome. In his youth, he made one campaign under Sylla, in the Marsic war. After his return, he availed himself of the instruction of the academician Philo, and of the celebrated orator Molo, and employed several years in acquiring the knowledge requisite for an orator. He witnessed the barbarities of Marius and Cinna, and the proscriptions of Sylla,

after which the exhausted, blood-stained republic remained undisturbed under the yoke of its dictator. Cicero, at that time 26 years old, endowed with knowledge and genius, appeared before the tribunals, at first in civil suits, afterwards in a criminal process, in which he defended Roscius Amerinus, who was accused of parricide by Chrysogonus, a freedman of Sylla. He conducted this defence with courage, confuted the accusers, and obliged the judges to acquit the accused. After this brilliant display, he remained a ear in Rome, and undertook another suit. His conduct, in both instances, must have displeased the dictator. But his debilitated health obliged him to travel; and he went to Athens, which was still the centre of science. Here he resided in the house of an academician, was visited by the philosophers of all the schools, and profited by the instruction of the masters of the most splendid period of his political oratory. Thus he passed six months with his friend Atticus, in the enjoyment of laterary pursuits. His immation into the paysteries of Elensis is supposed to have taken place about this time. He also undertook a journey to Asia, and remainof some time at Rhodes, where he likewas visited the most distinguished orathis, and partook in their exercises. On his return to Rome, his displays of elequence proved the value of his Greeian, ing. from the consulate, Cicero was only astruction. Among others, he defended the celebrated actor Rosems, his friend, and master in the art of elecution. At last, at the age of 30, he engaged in public laismess. He became questor of Sicily, during the prevalence of a great scarcity at Rome, and managed to convey a large quantity of corn from thence to the capital, though it was difficult for him so to do without exciting the displeasure of the Sicilians. He afterwards returned to Rome, and appeared as an orator, defendang the causes of private individuals, merely for the sake of fame. It was an honorable day for Cicero, when the ambassadors from Sierly appeared before him, with the request that he would conduct their suit against their governor Verres. He showed himself worthy of the confidence of an oppressed people, and appeared against this powerful robber, after having hunself collected proofs of his crimes in Scily. He was opposed by the celebrated Hortensus. The crimes of Verres are painted in the liveliest colors in his immortal speeches. Seven are preserved, but only two of them were delivered. Hortensius was struck dumb by the force of truth, and Verres went into voluntary

exile. After this suit, Cicero was elected to the office of edile. Though possessed of only a moderate fortune, he managed, by well-timed liberality, to gain the affections of the people whilst he held this office: But, for the execution of his plans, he was likewise in need of the friendship of the great, to obtain which he joined the party of Pompey, the head of the nobility and the first citizens of Rome. He became his panegyrist and most zealous adherent. Cauline at that time began to plan his conspiracy against the republic. He was accused of extortion in his goveriment of Africa, and Cicero was on the point of undertaking his defence, when they became rivals, being both candidates for the consulship. Cicero's merit prevailed over Catiline's intrigues and the envy of his enemies. He was chosen, cohsul unanimously; and now commences life. He succeeded in defeating the conspiracy of Cathine. (q. v.) At the same time, he conducted a private suit, in a masterly speech defending Murena, consul elect for the ensuing year, against the accusations of the Stoje Cato. 'After Catiline's fall, the Romans greeted Cicero as the father of his country. But a factious tribine would not consent to his rendering an account of his administration; and, on retirable to pronounce the celebrated oath, "I swear that I have saved the republic." Casar was always his opponent, and Pompey feared a citizen who loved liberty too much to be favorable ie the triumvirs. Cicero saw his credit gradually decreasing, and even his safety threatened. He therefore occupied himself more than ever with science, wrote the history of his consulate, in Greek, and composed a Latin poem on the same subject, in three books. At last the storm broke out. Clodus, Cicero's enemy, caused a law to be renewed, declaring every one guilty of treason, who commanded the execution of a Roman citizen before the people had condenned hun. The illustrious ex-consul put on mourning, and appeared, accompanied by the equites and many young patricians, demanding the protection of the people. Clodius, at the head of armed adherents, insulted them prentedly, and ventured even to besiege the senate. Crcero, upon this, went into voluntary exile, travelled through Italy, and ultimately took refuge in Thessalonica, with Plancus. Clodius, in the mean time, procured new decrees, in consequence of which Cicero's country-seats were torn down, and a tem.

de of freedom built on the site of his house at Rome. Cicero's wife and children were exposed to ill treatment. Whilst the accounts of these occurrences drove the unhappy man almost to despair. a change favorable to him was preparing in Rome. The audatity of Clodius became equally insupportable to all. Pompey encouraged Cicero's friends to get him recalled to Rome. The senate declared that it would not attend to any business until the decree which ordered his banishment was revoked. Through the zeal of the consul Lentulus, and at the proposition of several tribunes, the decree of recall passed the assembly of the people, in the following year, in spite of a bloody tumuR, m. which Cicero's brother Quintus was dangerously wounded. In this honorable manner Cicero returned, after an absence of ten months. The assembled senate received him at the gates. of the city, and his entry resembled a triumph. The republic undertook the charge of rebuilding his houses. From this period, a new epoch commences in Caero's life. His republican zeal dimineded in proportion as his attachment to Pempey increased, whom he declared his benefactor. Clodius opposed with aims the rebuiling of Cicero's houses, and orien attacked him personally. Milo repelled his attacks, and accused him, at, when he pardoned Marcellus. Enrapturthe same time, before the tribunal. Rome become frequently a field of battle. Ciceto, meanwhile, passed several years with inte public employment, occupied with his rhetorical works. To oblige Pompey, in defended Vatumes and Gabanus, two citizens of bad character, who had shown them-elves his implacable enemies. At the age of 54, he entered the college of the augurs. The death of the turbulent Clodus, who was slain by Milo, delivered tran from his most dangerous opponent. He defended the perpetrator of this act, who was his friend and avenger, in a beautiful speech; but the presence of Pompey's soldiers, and the tunnult of the friends of Clodius, confused him whilst ' delivering it. At this period, the senate appointed han governor of Calicia. Cicero conducted a war, while in the office, with good success, repulsed the Parthaus, and was greeted by the soldiers with the title of imperator. But he was not allowexad the honor of a triumph. As soon as iterm of office had expired, he returned to Rome, which was threatened with senpas disturbances, owing to the rupture between Crear and Pompey. Dreading the horrors of a civil war, he endeavored

in vain to reconcile the rivals. Cessar advanced towards Rome, and Pompey was . forced to fly with the consuls and the senate. Cicero, not anticipating this sudden approach of Casar, was still in Italy. Cæsar saw him at Formiss, but was not able to gain him over; for, although con-vinced that the party of Casar was likely to prevail, and although his sou-in-law, Dolabella, was one of Casar's confidents. he was prompted by his sense of honor to return to Pompey. After the battle of Pharsalia and the flight of Pompey, he retused to take the command of some troops who had remained at Dyrrhachium,\* but returned to Italy, which was governed by Casar's representative, Antony. This return was attended with several unplease ant circumstances, until the conqueror wrote to him, and soon after received him graciously. Cicero now devoted himself entirely tofaterature and philosophy. Hewas divorced from his wife Terentia, to enable him to marry a beautiful and rich herress, whose guardian he was. But the permury considerations which induced him to take this step could never prevail on lam to flatter power: on the contrary, he purposely kept aloof, and ridiculed the tlatterers of Casar, priding himself on his panegyric of Cato. But his disaffection was overcome by the liberality of Casar, ed by this act of favor, which restored his friend to hun. Cicero broke silence, and delivered a famous oration, which contained as much instruction as panegyric for the dictator. Soon after, he spoke in defence of Liganus, and Casar, relenting, gave up his purpose of condemning the accused to death. Creero now regained a part of his former consideration, when the death of his daughter Tullia occurred, and affected him very painfully. The assassination of Carsar opened a new career to the orator. He hoped to regain great political influence. The conspirators shuted with him the honor of an enterprise in which no part had been assigned him; and the less he had contributed to it himself, the more anxious was he to justify the deed, and pursue the advantages which it offered. But Antony took Cesar's place. Even in this turbulent year, Geero found leisure for literary occupations, and, among other labors, completed his work De Gloria, which was lost as late u- in the 14th century. He determined on going to Greece, where he could live m safety; but he soon returned to Rome, and composed those admirable orations against Antony, which are known to us by

the name of Philippics, and which are always remained a model. After the re-His implacable enmity topatriotiem. wards Antony induced him to favor young Octavius, although the pretended. moderation of the latter did not deceive him. With him originated all the energetic resolutions of the senate in favor of the war which the consuls and the young Casar were conducting, in the name of the republic, against Antony. Octavius having possessed himself of the consulate, and formed an alliance with Antony and Lepidus, after the death of the two consuls, the power of the senate and of the erator yielded to the arms of the winnvrs. Ciccro, who had always spared Octavius, and even proposed to Brutus to be a conciled with hen, was at last convinced that liberty was at an end. At; Tu-culum, whither he had retired with his brother and nephew, he learnt that his name, at Antony's demand, had been added to the list of the proscribed. He repaired, in a state of indecision, to the wa-coast, and embarked. Contrary winds drove him back to the shore. At the request of his slaves, he embarked a second times but soon returned again to await his fate at his country-seat near Formur. "I will die," exclaimed he, "in my country, which I have more than once saved." His slaves, seeing the neighborhood already disturbedby the soldiers of the trums irs, endeavoyed to copyey him away in a later, but soon discovered the murderers at their heels, They prepared for combat; his Cicero, who felts that death was unavoidable, ordeted them to make no resistance, bent his head before Populus, the commander of the nurderers, who had once been saved by his eloquence, and suffered death more courageously than he had borne mistortune. He died in his 64th year, A. U. C. 711 (B. C. 43). His head and hands were, by the orders of Antony, affixed to the same rostrum from which the orator, as Lavy says, had poured forth cloquence unequalled by any human voice. Cicero merned the character which Augustus gave him in these words: "He was a good citizen, who loved his country sincerely." He was (particularly considering the spirit of his times) a virtuous man, for his faults were only weaknesses of character, not vices, and he always pursued good for its own sake, or (what, if a fault, is easily forgiven) for the sake of fame. His heart was open to all noble impressions, to all great and fine feelings, to patriotism, friendship, grantude, and love of science. Cheero's eloquence has VOL. III. 17

equally distinguished for eloquence and vival of learning, he was the most admired of the ancient writers; and the purity and elegance of his style will always place him he the first rank of Roman changes. The style of his philosophical writings, without pratorical ostentation, breather that pure Attic elegance which some of his contemporaries wished also to see in his orations. The orator is seen, however, in his prolix and comparatively unanimated dialogues. His philosophical works, the principal part of the contents of which is taken from the Greek, and which combine academic and Stoic doctrines and principles, possess very unequal in-terest for us. Thus, for example, his work De Natura Deorum is, for us, only a collection of errors: the Tusculance Quastiones are full of the subtifies of the Atheman school: his work De Finibus Bonorum et Malorum likewise belongs to this somewhat dry, dogmatic philo-ophy. On the other hand, his works on practical morals have maintained their full value. The book De Officiis is to this day the finest treatise on virine, inspired by pure human wisdom. The pleasures of friend-hip and old age have tikewise been excellently set forth in Cheero's De . Imicitia and De Senertute. Of fus political work De Republica, a considerable part was brought to light by Maio, and pullished in Reme in 1822. Cicero wrote the six books De Rep. in his 54th year. In these he endeavored to show by what policy, what resources and what morals Rome had obtained the dominion of the world. Steinacker published these fragments at Leopsie, in 1823. Villensan translated and explained them (Paris, 1823). The work has also been translated in the United States (New York, 1820), Professor Gust. Munnich, in Cracow, gives an account of the Farmatian copy of Cicero De Rep., which, in 1581, was in the possession of a Volftenian nobleman, and has since disappeared, in his work, .W. Tull. Ciceronis Libri De Republica notit. Collicis Surmat. (Gottingen, 1825). According to him, Goslicki used this copy in his work De perfecto Senatore. Cicero's works De Dirinatione and De Legibia are instructive monuments of antiquity. The same philosophical sourit is evident in all his orniorical treatises, parlicularly in the most important of them. De Oratore, although this commins as little of utility for us as the Claris Oratoribus, Topicis. De Partitione Oratoria, &c. most interesting of all Cicero's works, for posterity, are his Epistola familiares and

Ad Atticum, which give a more exact and lively idea of the state of the republic than any of his other works, and display most strongly the characteristic traits of the au-thor. They are translated, in a musterly style, by Wieland. The life of Cicero was written, of old, by Plutarch, and has been also, in modern times; by Middicton and Morabin. In the publication and explanation of his works. Paulus and Aldus Manuturs, Lambinus, the two Gruters, the two Gronovii, &c., have distinguished themselves. We possess late editions of his entire works, by J. A. Ernesti, Beck and Schutz. Cicero's hie, interesting on many accounts, is particularly so to the historical politician, as showing the consequences of the deplorable state of the Roman republic, in the case of so disunguished an individual, as well as the impossibility of preserving its liberty. Cato; Cicero, and some others, were worthy of having lived in a better age of the republic, to the corruption of which they fell martyrs—In 1828 appeared a highly important work, edited by Maio (q. v., Classicorum Auctorum e Valicanis Codicibus Editorum: Tomus I et II, curante Angelo Majo, Vaticana Bibliotheca Prafecto. Rome, Typis Valueanis, 1-2-, -vo. The second volume contains all the tragments of Cicero's orations which have been discovered by Maio, Niebulii and Peyron.

CICERONE: the title of the person who, in Italy, and particularly in Rome, snows and explains to strangers currosities and - etinppins The talkativeness of such persons has procured them the name of ricerone, in jocular allusion to Geero. A good, encerone must possess extensive and accurate information , and several distingui-hed archeologists have pursued the business, as it gives them an opportunity. while wrying others, to make repeat de exammations of the works of art, and thus to become continually more familiar with them. Signore Nibbi is the most distinguished exerone. He explains anaquities on the spot, in Rome, in a very nightesting manip r.

Citishto; a name given, since the 17th century, in Italy, to the professed gallant of a married lady. It is the fashion, among the jugher ranks in Italy, to the husband, from the day of marriage, to associate with his wife in his own house only. In society, or places of public amusement, she is accompanied by the cicishto, who even attends at her toilet, to receive her commands for the day.

This custom is the more extraordinary,

from the natural jealousy of the Italian, who seems to change his character completely after marriage. Father Barri has made the Cicisbeatura the subject of a moral work, and divides it into larga and stretta; the first kind he thinks pardonable, but the latter he rygards with repugnance. This custom is much on the dechne in Italy.

CICOGNARA, Leopold, count of, born at Ferrara, about 1780. He carly showed a great taste for the time arts. His first work was Memorie Storiche dei Letterati ed Artisti Ferraresi (Ferrara, 1811). Napoleon made him president of the academy of • if the arts at Venice, where his house became a central point for the lovers of the tine arts. The French emperor also assisted him in his enterprises, and made him kinght of the iron crown. After the emperor's fall, the Austrian government allowed Cicognara to retain his place as president of the academy of tine arts. In 1818, he accompanied the works of art sent by the government of Venice to Vienna as a present for the empress Carohipe of Austria. At the same time, he presented her 100 copies of his Omaggio delle Provincia Venete alla Maista di Carolika Augusta (Venice, 1818, tol ), with 18 engravings. The work is splendidly exeented Besides the 100 copies presented to the empress, only 500 were struck off, which never came into the book trade, The Omaggro, therefor, belongs to the go at tabliographical rarities. (See the count's Lettera sulla Statua rappresentante Polimina d' Ca sova, Venice, 1817, p. 1015 Creognam, having long entertained the idea of contacing Winckelmann's History of Art to the latest times, and having collected copious materials for this purpose. it length produced a work which has been violently ettacked, both on account of its probests and as deficiencies. It is, however, one which cannot be dispensed with It- title i-. Sloria della Scullura dal suo Risorgimento in Italia sino al Secolo di Canora, of which vol. 1, fol., with \$3 copperplates, was published in Venice, at the expense of the author. It was followed, in 1-16, by vol. 2, containing 90 engrayings. This volume had on its title, Sino at Seeglo XIA. Vol. 3 was published in 1818, with 18 plates. Of the 2d edition, the 5th vol. appeared at Prato in 1824. When the first volume was completed, Catogora presented it himself to Napoleon, to whom it is dedicated. On his visit to Pans for this purpose, he was elected a member of the institute. He had received assistance from the French government

was withdrawn on the restoration of the ble sores, with which a poultice does not Bourbons, and the author became much embarrassed, as he had spent a great part of his private fortune in the undertaking. In consequence of having been confounded with another Cicognara, who was imprisoned in Italy as a member of the Carbonari, he published a letter, while at Paris, on the subject of the political persecutions in his country, and expressed his opinion very freely. On his return from Paris, he was received at Venice very coolly, and, in consequence, went to Rome. Having spent his fortune in his literary enterprises, he was obliged 🐌 sell his library, which he had been 30 years in collecting. For this purpose he published a Catalogo ragionato dei Libri d'Arti e d'Antichità posseduti dal Conte Cicognara (Pisa, 2 vols.). This catalogue is a work of value, as the titles are accompamed with bibliographical notices. Among the smaller works of the count, of which there are many, is Le Fabbriche più cospicue di Venezia, misurate, illustrate ed intagliate dei Membre della Veneta R. Acrademia delle belle Arti (Vernee, 1-20, 2 vol. The work contains 250 engravings, and the greater part of the critical observations are by Cicognara burself.

Cicura. Theseicha.or common American hemlock (conium maculatum), 1- on• of the most valuable and important of medicinal vegetable. It is a plant indigenous in most temperate climates, and is found commonly along walls and fences, and about old ruins and buildings. It is an annual plant, of four or five feet in height, having very fine double pumate leaves, of a pale-green color, and bearing flowers of a greenish-white, in large, flat heads. It was first introduced to general notice, together with other vegetables of the same kind, by baron Storck of Vienna. The most common form in which it is administered, is the extract, which is given m pills.—Of this, from 12 to 60 grams per day may be taken for a long time. It is invaluable in all chrome unflammations. and enlargements of glandular parts, as the liver, the womb, &c., tumors of which it will sometimes remove in a space of time surprisingly short. Its use may be continued, if necessary, for a long time, and it is not found to debilitate or injure the system in the manner that mercury always does when long used. Its green leaves, stured into a soft poultice, form an excellent application for painful sores and ulcers; and the same leaves, dried and rubbed fine, make, when mixed with ce-

in the execution of his work; but this rate or lard, a capital ointment for irrita-

Cip. Don Rodrigo (Ruy) Diaz, count of Bivar, surnamed the Cid, born in 1024, the model of the heroic virtues of his age, and the flower of Spanish chivalry, styled hy his enemics (the ambassadors of the Moorish kings) d mio Cid (my lord), and by his king and countrymen Campeador (hero without an equal), continues to live in the poetry of his country. We were made acquainted with the history of his life by the play of the great Corneille. \*Rodrigo loved and was beloved by Ximene, daughter of Lozano, count of Gormaz, who, with Diego, the father of Rodrigo, , excelled all the knights at the court of, Ferdmand I of Castile. The envy of Gormaz at Diego's superior estimation at court produced a dispute between the two, which led to a duel. Gornaz vanquished the old Diego, and, insult being added to this disgrace, Diego demanded from his son the blood of the offender. In the contest between honor and love, the former prevailed in the breast of the youth, and Gormaz fell. Ximene, unfortunate as a daughter and a mistress, could no longer listen to the voice of love; it became neces by for her to demand cageance in the object of her affections, and Rodingo would willingly have rushed to the combat, it by so doing he could have alleviated the torments of a lacerated But no champion was found to meet the young hero; and nothing but the discharge of the important duties which devolved upon him could preserve him from sinking under his despair. Moorish kings appeared in Castile: devastation and death accompanied their progress. Rodrigo, who was not yet 20 years of age, threw himself upon his noble) literse Babicca, and, at the head of his vassals, went to meet the enemy, who soon ceased to be the terror of the country. The young hero sent the five captive kings to Ferdmand, who, as a reward for his bravery, gave him Ximene, and united those whom the decrees of fate seemed to have separated forever. They were married in Valencia. Ferdmand afterwards added Gahera, Leon and Oviedo to Castile, and posterity calls-lim the Great. but it was Rodrigo who gained him the name. A quarrel having arren between Ferdmand and king Ramiro of Arragon concerning the possession of Calaborra, the latter challenged him to a single courbut, and appointed for his substitute the Ferdinand. knight Martin Gonzalez.

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chose the Cid for his champion, and, by his means, obtained Calaborra. Ferdinand, in his will, divided his dominions among his sons: to Sancho he gave Castile, to Alfonso he gave Leon and Oviedo, and to Garcia, Galicia, together with the conquered part of Portugal. This divis-ion caused a war between the brothers, in which Sancho was victorious: this success was owing to the Cid, to whom he had given the command of his forces. Alfonso was taken prisoner, Garcia brought ruin upon lamself by his own imprudence, and it remained only to overcome the ob-stinate resistance of Zamora, where Sancho's sister Urraca ruled. Before the walls of this city Sancho was assusmated, and Alfonso, who, eight months before, was vanquished by the Cid, was called to the throne. It is related, in the ballads, that the Cid read the oath of purification, in the name of the states of Castile, before the new king, on account of the murder of Sancho, with such impressive solemnity, that Alfonso shuddered, but was also offended. It is certain that he spared nothing to gain over the Cid. The story · of this warrior requires a critical examination, especially what relates to his marriage. · According to history, Alfonso married him to donna Ximene, his mece (in 1074); and consequently it seems we must consider him twice married. John von Müller, the German Instorian, supposes that the daughter of the proud German may have been his first Nimene. However that may be, it is certain that the Cid. not with standing the information services which he rendered to his king, often expenenced the inconstancy of royal favor. A man like him, of strict integrity and virtue, of an inflexible and lofty spirit, who despised an effermante life, was not fitted for courts. His true friend and brother in arms, Alvajo Hanez Miraya, his wife and child, were his world. The gravity of his countenance excited respect and reverence, his retired life afforded room for the slanders of the courts re ; and he was exposed to frequent reproaches. But, in times of necessity, his assistance was again sought, and he was too generous to remember past offences. The king · finally took from lam all that he had given him, wife, and treasures; but, from shame or fear, he afterwards restored X1mene. Disgraced, plundered, forced to epend on himself alone, Rodrigo was now , happier and greater than before. Ever true to his country and his religion, he ed an army by the reputation of hiname alone, to subdue the Moors in Va-

"lencia. In the midst of his career of conquest, he hastened to the assistance of his king, who was hard preced by Joseph. the founder of Morocco; but the only return for this generosity was new ingratitude. He therefore departed by night, with his most trusty followers, and, forsaken and ill provided, fled from the king. He, however, remained true to himself, and fortune to him. His magnanimity again overcame the king. Permission was given to all to join the forces of the Cid, who still mamtained the cause of Spain, and always with distinguished success. Alfonso declared alond, in the presence of the envious courtiers, "This Cid serves me much better than you," and could no longer be prevented from visiting him From this time, he was never estranged from him, although he unintentionally promoted the machinations of his eneimes. Two brothers, counts of Carrion, had resolved, by a marriage with the daughters of the Cid, to obtain possession of his wealth. The king himself promoted their suit, and the Cid yielded to With donna Llyna and don na Sol, they received likewise the greatreasures which the arms of the Cid had But searcely first they dismiss of their attendants, when, in a wild, mean tamous desert, they stripped the garments from the persons of the ladies, bound and bent them till pain choked their cries, and departed with the money. A trust servant, whom the Cid had sent after them delivered the ladies from their wretched sampton, and the vile deed was brought to light. The Cid demanded justice. Alfonso sunmoned all the vassils of Lor and Castile to a high court of justice at the cary of Toledos, The Cid demanded the restoration of his treasure, and oppose turnty to take vengeance for the insult, by a combat between the counts of Carner and the champions whom he should name. They sought to avoid the combat, but the king usested on it. With ill-cor coaled fear, they rode to the lists; the kinghts of the Cid overcame both their and their uncle: their dishonored lives were spared. The last exploit of the Cuwas the capture of Saguntum (Murviedro'. after which he died at Valencia, in the 74th year of his age (1000). What the hero won, and for many years defended, the united power of Leon and Castile was scarcely able to preserve against the cucroachments of the intidels. His widow, therefore, went with the dead body of the hero to Castile. He was buried at the convent of St. Peter of Cardena, in a

ne, and under the trees before the convent lies the faithful horse Babieca. The adventures of the Cid, particularly his banishment and return, are the subjects of the oldest Castilian poem, probably composed at the end of the 12th century, Poema del Cid el Campeador, which was published in the Coleccion de Poesias Castellanas anteriores al Siglo XV, of Sanchez, in 1775, and has been reprinted in Schubert's Biblioteca Castellana Portugues y Proven-The later ballads, which commenorate the hero, were, at the beginning of the 16th century, collected by Fernando del Castillo, and, in 1614, again published by Pedro de Florez in the Romancero General. There has also been published a collection by Escobar—Historia del muy noble y valeroso Caballero el Cid Ruy Diaz, en Romances (Lasbon, 1615 : Seville, 1632). A great number have been published in the Collection of the best Ancient Spanish Historical, Chivalrous and Moorish Poems, by Depping (Altenburg and Leipsic, 1817). There are, in all, above a hundred of these ballads extant. Herder, in his beautiful Cid (Tubingen, 1806), has translated into German 70 of these ballads, (probably some of the collection of Escobury. John von Muller has written the life of the Cid (in the 8th volume of his works) from Spanish sources, mostly from an old chronicle printed in Risco's Historia del Cul (Madrid, 1792). W hatever chromeles and songs have conveyed to uof the history of the Cid, is rollected in the Chromele of the Cid, from the Span ish, by Robert Southey (London, 1808, 4to.).

Ciper; a liquor ntade from the juice of apples. The quality of this popular beverage depends principally on the following particular, viz.-1. kind of fruit; 2. condition of the fruit when ground; 3. manner of grinding and pressing; 4. method of conducting the requisite fermentation, and precautions to be taken against as excess.-1. The characteristics of a good cider-apple (according to Mr. Buel of Albany) are, a red skin, yellow and often tough and fibrous pulp, astringency, dryness, and ripeness at the cidermaking season. Mr. Knight, a famous English horticulturist, asserts, that, "when the rind and pulp are green, the cider will always be thin, weak and colorless; and when these are deeply tinged with yellow, it will, however manufactured, or in whatever soil the fruit may have grown, almost always possess color and either strength or richness."

tomb which was honored by emperors ed by Crocker, in his tract on The Art of and kings. There rests the noble Xime making and managing Cider, that the making and managing Cider, that the most certain indications of the ripeness of apples are the fragrance of their smell. and their spontaneously dropping from the trees. When they are in this state of maturity, in a dry day, the limbs may, he says, be slightly shaken, and partly disburthened of their golden store; thus taking such apples only as are ripe, and leaving the unripe longer on the trees, that they may also acquire a due degree of maturity. Mr. Buel observes, that "the only artificial criterion employed to ascerthin the quality of an apple for cider, is the specific gravity of its must, or unfermented juice; or the weight compared with that of water. This, says Knight, indicates, with very considerable accura-.cy, the strength of the future cider. Its weight and consequent value are supposed to be increased in the ratio of the increase of saccharine matter." Mr. Knight says that the strongest and most highly-flavored cider which has been obtained from the apple, was produced from fruit growing on a shallow loam, on a limestone basis. All the writers on the subject seem to agree that calcareous earth should form a component part of the soil of a eiderorchard. Coxe . we the soil which yields ; good wheat and clovers best for a eiderorchard. Mr. Buel states, "My own observation would induce me also to prefer a dry and some what loose soil, in which the toots destined to firmsh food for the tree and fruit may penetrate, freely, and range extensively in search of untriment." -2. Condition of the fruit. Fruit should be used when it has attained full maturity, and before it begins to decay. The indications of ripeness we have above stated. Each kind of apple should be manufactured separately, or, at least, those kinds only should be mixed which rips a about the same time. Mr. Buel says, "The apples should ripen out the tree, be guthered when dry, in a cleanly manner, spread in an arry, covered situation, if practicable, fores time, to induce an evaporation of aqueous matter, which will increase the strength and flavor of the liquor, and be separated from rotten fruit, and every kind of tilth, before they are ground."-3. Grinding, &c. The apples should be reduced, by the mill, as nearly as possible to a unform mass, in which the rind and seeds are scarcely discoverable, and the pomace should be exposed to the air. Knight acertained, by experiments, that, by expering the reduced pulp to the operation of It is observe the atmosphere for a few hours, the spe-

cific gravity of the juice increased from gas. A bottle of French brandy, or half 1,064 to 1,078; and, from the experiment a gallon of dider-brandy, added to a bar-1,064 to 1,078; and, from the experiment a gallon of cider-brandy, added to a barbeing repeated in a closed vessel with attended, is likewise recommended, to be addmospheric air, he ascertained the acces- ed as soon as the vinous fermentation is sion to be oxygen, which, according to Lavoisier, constitutes 64 per cent. of suthe fruit be ground and pressed imper-, an apple mostly cultivated in Virginia, feetly, and that the pulp be then exposed called the Virginia crab-apple. 24 hours to the air, being spread and once or twice turned, to facilitate the absorption of oxygen; that it be then ground again, and the expressed juice be added of Boston, at an exhibition of the Massa- as finished. His Flight to Egypt was the chusetts agricultural society, in the nu-work of six months. He knew how to tunin of 1828, for which he received a compose, like the Caracci, and to distribute premium of 12 dollars. It is thus described by the committee who awarded , paintings appear larger than they really the premium: "It has a wooden cylinder, upon the surface of which nads are fixed: the head- are sharp upon the edges, and project above the cylinder about one cighth of an inch. The apples are filled into a hopper placed over the cylinder, and led mio a narrow cavity at the upper side of it. The cylinder is mounted on a high frame, its axes being placed in conposition boxes. A rapid revolution is produced by connecting it with a horse-mill by belts or bands. The apples are reduced to a time pomate, grated, not pressed. It performed well in the presence of the commuttee, and grated a berrel of russet apples in 1 minute 31 seconds."-4. Fermentation. The vinous termentation commences and terminates at "different periods, a cording to the condtion and quality of the fruit, and the state of the weather. According to Knight, the best criterion to judge of the proper moment to rack off of draw the honor from the seum and cediments, will be the brightness of the liquor which takes place after the discharge of fixed air has ceased, and a thick crust is collected on the surface. The clear liquor should their be drawn off into another cask. If it remans bright and quiet, nothing more need he done to it till the succeeding spring: but if a seum collects on the surface, a must immediately be racked off again, as this would produce had effects if suffered to sink .- Among the precautions used to prevent excelsive fermentation is stumming, which is funding the cask with burning sulphur. This is done by burning a rag impregnated with sulphur in the rank in which the figuor is to be decanted, after it has been partly filled, and rolling it, so as to incorporate the liquor with the

completed. The best dider manufactured in the U. States is said to be that of Newgar. For fine order, he recommends that ark, New Jersey, and that produced from

CIGAR. (See Tobacco, and Cuba.)

Cignani, Carlo; a celebrated painter, born at Bologna in 1628; a pupil of Al-He frequently commenced new bano. works, but was seldom sufficiently satisto it before it is again pressed. A grater works, but was seldom sufficiently satis-cider-mill was presented by J. R. Newell, "fied with his productions to consider them ute his figures in such a way that his are. His finest fresco paintings are at St. Michael in Bosco, at Bologna, in ovals supported by angels, and in the saloon of the Farnese palace, where he represented Francis I of France touclung Gor #1-king sevil. At Parma, in the ducal garc'en, he painted several meces expressive of the power of love, which lose nothing at the side of the paintings of Augustino Caracca. In his painting of the Assumption, at Forh, he has mutated the beautiful Michael of Guido in the cupola at Ra-Yearna, and other fine conceptions of this panter; but me his other pieces he made Correggio las model. He does not so often introduce fore-shortenings as the Londards; and, in his outlines and drapers, he presesses a finish peculiar to time-bl. His rened is powerful, and his coloring hyely. Clement XI conferred on land several marks of distinction. Being connectioned to paint the cupola of the emirch of Madomin del l'uoco, at l'es b. he repaired to Forh with his numerous papils, where he died in 1719. His paintings have been engraved by various art is's. Of his pupils, the most distinguish ed were Crespi, Franceschin, Quain, count Felix Cignain, his son, and cour. Paul Cignain, his nephew.

Circles, in divient geography; the re gion between Pumphylia and Syria, lyne... S. of mount Taurus. The inhabitants of the coasts were formidable as prates, and even described the Algorin and forms. sens. The inhabitants of the northern portion lived in part a nomadic life; those in the east were devoted to agriculture. Alexander made Cibeia a Macedoman province; it then passed to the Syrams. Pompey subdued its piratical inhalfitants. It was governed by kings under some of the Roman emperors, but was made a Roman province in the time of Vespusian.

CILICIUM; originally, a coarse, rough garment of gout's-hair, made in Cilicia, the usual habit of the soldiers and scamen of that country. It has since been used to denote a garment of penance, made of horse-hair, which monks and hermits principal theatres of Italy. He was in-This name is also given, in the convents, to a belt of wire, with sharp points, which press upon the body, and are intended for penance.

CIMABLE, Giovanni, one of the restor- cr< of the art of painting in the middle.</li> ages, born at Florence in 1240; renomiced his studies to follow his inclination for painting. Two Greek artists, who were invited to I'lorence by the senate, to paint a chapel in the church of Santa Maria Novella, were his first masters. Although these artists handled the pencil awkwardly, they however taught him, according to ancient tradition, the proportions which the Greek artists had observed in their unitations of the human figure. Attentive to their instructions, \* Cimabue studied (principally the fine antique statues," He was the first to point out to succeeding painters the clements of the beau ideal, the memory of which had been extinguished during several centuries of disorder. It is true the paintings of Cimabue do not exhibit may harmonious distributton of light and shade which forms the chiaro oscaro. His coloring is dry, that and cold; the outlines of his figures us tersect each other on a blue, green or yellow ground, according to the effect which he had in view. He had no idea of linear and aerial perspective. His paintmgs are, properly speaking, only monochromes. But these faults, which are to be attributed to the infancy of the art, are compensated for by beauties of a high order-a grand style, accurate drawing, natural expression, noble grouping, and a fine disposition of his drapery. His best paintings are in the church of Santa Maria Novella at Florence, and ur the Sacro Convento, at Assisi. He is said to have died in 1300. He may be considered the link between the ancient and modern schools of painting. Cimabue was equally successful in painting on glass and in fresco. He, their sepulchres, the vanquished party was also a distinguished architect. He prepared the way for Massacio, Pietro Perugino, Giovanni Bellino, Leonardo da Vinci, Titum, Michael Angelo and Raphael. (See Italian Art.)

sical instruction from Secchini, entered the conservatory of Loretto, where he imbibed the principles of the school of Durante, and studied with great assiduity. He soon displayed his superiority in the Sacrificio di Abramo, the Olimpiade, and other compositions. At the age of 25, he had already gained the applause of the vited to St. Petersburg (where he remained four years) and to several German courts, to compose heroic and comic operas. In the latter, he particularly distinguished himself by the novelty, warmth, diumor and liveliness of his ideas, and by a thorough acquaintance with stage effect. Among his 120 operas, the most celebrated are, Penelope, Gli Orazj e Curiazj, and Artaserse, among the opere serie; and among the opere buffe, L'Italiano in Londra, L'Amor costante, Il pittore Parigino,. and many others. His comic opera R: Matrimonio segreto excited general cuthususm, and received the signal-honor of being performed twice on the same evenmg, at the desire of the emperor Leopold. From Vienna he went to Naples, and became involved there in the revolutionary commotion. He died at Venice, in 1801, from the effects of the ill-treatment which he had been subjected to in prison. His bust, by Canova, was placed in the Pantheon at Rome, in 1816, at the side of those of Sacchini and Pacsiello.

CIMBRI, or CIMBERIANS, were the first German tribe known to the Greeks Then acquamtance with them was acquired soon after the Trojan war, when the Cimbri sallied forth out of their dwellings in Tauris and Luropean Tartary, and entered Asia Minor. At that time, the Scythians were forced to give way to the Massagetæ, and retire from the east of the Caspian sea towards the counto of the Cumbri to the west. This tribs now split into parties on the question whether they should comply with the wishes of their kings, and oppose the strangers with arms, or, as another part adaised, emigrate. The dispute was de eided by a battle, in which the roya After the dead party was overcome. had been buried on the shores of the Tyras (Dniester), where Herodotus sav fled to the north and east side of the Pou tus, and entered Asia, where they became known to the Greeks; the other party withdrew to the Vistula, and even beyone The Greeks retained no knowledge it. CIMAROSA, Domenico, a composer, born of these Cimmerians but the tradition that at Naples, in 1755, received his first muthey had proceeded to the north-west

On this account, the Greeks, when they reached the north-western ocean, considered the nations of that quarter Cimmeriens; and, for the same reason, the name of Cimbria or Cimmeria was given to the Danish peninsula. Homer was acquainted with a tradition, according to which the Cimmerians were to be found among the wild inhabitants of the caves round the Avernus; and Pythens took a race which he found on the Damsh pennisula for Cimmerians. These fables only serve to create confusion in lustory. The real Cimmerians had never proceeded so far north, but dwelt on the Vistala, from ' whence, under the name of Cimbri, they sallied, together with the Teutones, and made themselves formulable to the Romans. In the year 114 B. C., when the Romans were already masters of a part of the castern Alps, in the present Carmola, Istra. & c., and had established themselves in Dalmatia and Illyria, along the coast, immense bodies of barbanans suddenly made their appearance, who overcame the consul Papirus Carbo in the . country now called Stiria; but, instead of entering Italy, they proceeded to the north, and, soon after, jointly with the Tigurians, entered the territory of the Allobroges. The Bomans sent two armes, commanded by the consuls L. Cassans and M. Aurelius Scaurus, to oppose them, but both were defeated; the former by the Tiguriaus, the latter by the Cimbri. Even after this success, the victors did not enter Italy, but overran Gaul with three bodies, consisting of Tentones, Cimbra and Ambrones. Two new armies, with which the consul C. Manhus and the proconsul Q. Servilius Capió hastened to oppose them, were likewise defeated, beyond the Rhodanus. The Romans lost, according to Aetius, \$0,000 men. Whilst Rome placed her last hope in Marius, the barbarians overran the other western countries of Europe. •Gaul suffered severely, but the Iberians and Belgians repulsed the invaders, Upon this, they resolved to descend into Italy. Tentones and Ambrones were to enter on the western side of the Alps, the Cumbin and Tigurians on the east. After Manus had waited the approach of the first during three entire years, and had accustomed his troops to their appearance, he routed them completely (102 B. C.), in , two days—on the first day the Ambrones, on the second the Teutones—at Aix, in Provence. The Cimbri, on the other

themselves along the Po, demanded land of the Romans, but were totally routed by Marius at Vercelli, 101 B. C. After this period, the Cimbri and Teutones disappear from history. A part of them had , remained behind in Belgia with the baggage. These are the Advatici. At a later period, the Romans recognised the Cimbri to be a German nation. For a long time, deceived by their appearance, they took them for Celta. The Celtie exterior of the Cimbri may be explained by their connexion and mixture with the Celts on their march from the Danube and the Carpathian mountains.

Cimps, son of Miltiades and Hegesipyle, daughter of a Thracian prince, Olorus, was, according to Plutarch, edu cated in a very negligent manner, and indulged in every species of excess. In the Persian war, he begun to make him-self known. When Themistocles proposed to abandon the city and take refuge m the ships, in order to carry on the win by sea, Cimon, in company with several other young men, ascended the citadel. deposited the bridle of his horse in the temple, and took from the wall one of the shields, with which he went down to the fleet. He displayed great courage in the b. ttle of Salamis, and attracted the attention of Aristides, who attached himself to kun, as he considered hun fit to counteract the dangerous influence of Themistocles. When the Athemans, in concert with the other Greeks, sent a fleet to Asia for the purpose of delivering their colomes from the Persian yoke, they gave Austides and Canon the chief command. and the return of Aristides to Athens, soon after, left Cmion at the head of the whole naval force of Greece. He distingushed himself by his splendid achievements in Thrace, defeated the Persians on the banks of the Strymon, and made himself master of the country. He conquered the island of Scyros, the inhabitants of which were addicted to pirucy, and founded an Atheman colony there. Here he found the remains of Theseus. and transported them to Athens, where a temple was then built, for the first time, to this hero. He next subdied all the crites on the coast of Asia Minor, and event against the Persian fleet, which lay at the mouth of the Eurymedon. The Persians, although superior in number, did not dare to abide an engagement, but sailed up the river, to place themselves under the protection of their land-forces. hand, who had driven back the consul Cimon pursued and attacked them, and Catullus on the Adige, and had spread took or destroyed more than 200 of their

ships. He then landed, and entirely de- the passage of the Lacedæmonians, who feated their army. These two victories, achieved in one day (B. C. 469), delivered Greece from the Persians. Cimon, returned to Athens, in the entbellishment of which he employed the spoils which The had taken. He removed the walls from his fields and gardens, that every one might be at liberty to take whatever , fighting with the greatest bravery. he pleased. His table was spread for all the citizens of his curia. He never appeared in public without being attended by several slaves bearing garments, which he distributed to the poor. He adorned · the city with elegant walks, caused the market-place to be planted with planetrees, transferred the academy to the beautiful gardens of Athens, all at his own expense. This generosity was the more noble, as it could hardly be attributed to a desire of courting the people; for he constantly opposed Themistocles, and, at a subsequent period, Pericles and Ephialtes, who endeavored to extend the power of the people. Cimon used his influence to preserve a good understanding between the Atheman's and Lacedamonians, by the latter of whom he was much beloved, and whom he sought to imitate. About 466 B. C., the Thasians having revolted, he defeated them, took possession of their city, and of their gold muies on the neighboring continent, and found-, in him, one of her most distinguished ened the city of Aniphipolis. Scarcely had he returned to Athens, when Pencles, and the other popular leaders, accused him of being corrupted by the king of Macedon, because he had refrained from seizing the possessions of that prince in time of peace. But the people rejected so groundless an accusation. An insur-teetion of the Helots having broken out during the enterprise against. Thusos, the Lacedemomans sought the assistance of the Athenians, who were induced by Ci-mon to send them aid. The Lacedemomans, however, fearing the inconstancy of the Athenians, sent back their troops, and thus excited their displeasure. Pericles and Ephialtes had also profited by town of Mexico, in a province of the same Cunon's absence to take the jurisdiction, in a multitude of cases, from the Arcopagus, and transfer it to the Heliasts; thus giving an immense power to the inferior classes. Cimon endeavored, in vain, on his return, to place matters on the old footing. His enemies, therefore, took advantage of the popular discontent, to which that subject had given rise, to procure his banishment. He retired into Borotia. Soon after, when the Athenians advanced to Tanagra, in order to dispute

were returning from Delphi, which they had freed from the Phocians, he appeared, prepared to fight, with his tribe. He urged his friends to show, by their conduct, the groundlessness of the accusation brought against him of favoring the Lacedemonians, and nearly all of them fell, though the Athenians lost this battle, they still continued the war till 456 B. C., when, the Helots being entirely subdued, the Athenians feared that the whole power of Lacedæmon would be turned against them. They recalled Cimon, who concluded a peace, but, at the same time, to afford employment to the restless spirit of the Athenians, undertook an expedition against Egypt and Cyprus. He sailed against Cyprus with 260 ships, whence he sent 60 to Egypt. With the remainder he defeated the Persian fleet and army or the Phremeian coast (450). The peace of Cimon (B. C. 419), of which Isocrates, Demosthenes, Diodorus and Plutarch speak, but which Thucydides does not mention, probably never took place. Those authors were deceived by the report of a treaty which was not concluded. In 449, Cumon be sieged the city of Citum, but died before it was taken, and after his death the Athemans retired. Athens lost, izens. The popular party, which he had opposed, now gamed the superiority.

CINALOA; a province on the west side of Mexico, comprehended under the intendancy of Sonora, lying betyeen New Biscay and the gulf of Californa; 300 miles long, and 150 broad. The air is pure and healthy, the land good and fertile, producing abundance of maize, legumes, fruits and cotton. The natives are robust and warlike, and were with difficulty brought to submit to the Spaniards. They make use of bows with poisoned arrows, clubs of redswood, and bucklers. Population, 60,000.

CINALOA, OF ST. FELIPE Y ST. JAGO; 8 name, 630 miles N. W. Mexico; lon. 106 40' W.; lat. 26° 26' N.; population, 9500. CINCHONA. (See Rark, Peruvian.)

CINCINNATI (the Cincinnatuses); a soenery established by the officers of the revolutionary army of the U. States, in 1783, to perpetuate their friendship, and to raise a fund for relieving the widows and orphans of those who had fallen during the war. The name of Cincinnatus (q. y) was adopted, as emblematic of the civic character of the American army. The

honors of the society were to be heroditary in the eldest male line of the original members, and, in default of male issue, in the collateral male line. This association excited the fears of the republicans in America, and, among them, of Franklin: they saw in it the germ of a future aristocracy. At the first general meeting of : the order, at Philadelphia, 1784, some modifications were, therefore, made in the constitution, and, in some of the states, it was silently abandoned. At present, there are seven state societies, which hold a general meeting by delegates triennially. The badge of the society is a bald eagle suspended by a blue ubbon edged with white, emblematic of the umon of France and America. On the breast of the engle, Cincinnatus is receiving the military ensigns from the three senators; the implements of husbandry are seen in the background: round the whole, Omnia reliquit servare rempublicam. On the reverse, Fame is crowning Cincumatus with a wreath, inscribed Virtalis pramium, with other emblems; round the whole, Societas Cincinnatorum, instituta A. D. 1783.

Cincinnati; a city of the state of Ohio, in Hamilton county, on the north bank of the river Ohio; 20 miles above the mouth of the Great Miami, 122 above Louisville; 455 below Pattsburg by the river, and 300 by land; 109 S. W. of Columbus; lat 39 6' N., lon. 84° 27' W.: populadon, at 1~05, 750; in 1810, 2540; in 1820, 9642; and, in 1829, 24,148. Cincinnati was first laid out in 1789, and began to flourish after the year 1794, since which time as growth in population, wealth and trade has been exceedingly rapid. It is a great emporium of the western country, and, next to New Orleans, much the largest town in the U. States west of the Alleghany mountams. The city is advantageously and pleasantly situated. It stands partly but the first and partly on the second bank of the river, the upper plant being elevated 50 or 60 feet above the lower. The central part of the town is very compact, and a great proportion of the houses are hand-somely built of brick. The principal public buildings and institutions in 1829 were a court-house, a jail, the medical college, the Cincinnati college, an hospital, a museum, a city hierary, the apprentices' library, 3 market-houses, 5 msurance companies. 23 places of public worship, 5 classical achools, and 47 common schools. There were published, at the same period, 2 daily newspapers, 2 semi-weekly, and 5 weekly, besides other periodical publications. In 1826, there belonged to the city

28 clergymen, 34 attorneys, and 35 physicians. The number of students in the medical college, in 1825, was 82. The Cincinnati college was incorporated in 1819. Cincinnati is a place of great trade and extensive manufactures. ports, of which the most considerable articles are flour and pork, amounted, in 1826, to 1,063,560 dollars; and the imports, in the same year, to 2,528,590 dollars. considerable portion of the imports is brought here for re-exportation. are between 30 and 40 manufacturing establishments, some of which are on a very extensive scale; and their works are, to a great extent, moved by steam power The whole value of the manufactures, in all the departments, was estimated, in 1828, at 1,850,000 dollars. The markets of Cincinnati are abundantly supplied with various kinds of provisions, which are furnished at a low price.

CINCINNATUS, Lucius Quinctius, a patrician belonging to the earliest period of the Roman republic, equally distinguished by heroism, magnammity, contentment and disinterestedness, was chosen consul-160 B. C. The messengers charged with the information of his election found him at the plough in the fields. He accepted the office, and only regretted that his buile farm would be neglected. He behaved, while in the consul-hip, disinterestedly and honorably, but refused it when it was offired to him the following year, and afterwards received the dictatorship for six months, to terminete the unhappy war with the neighboring Æqui. The messengers again found him at his plough. He immediately joined and assisted the consul Minutus, surprised the enemies during the night, made prisoners of all then army, and divided the booty amongst ms soldiers, only retaining for himself a golden crown, which his army had presented to him to express their grantude. After having celebrated a triumph, he resigned his office, which he had held only during 16 days, and returned to his rural retirement. At an advanced age, he was again elected dietator to restrain the power of Spurms Mudius, a dangerous and turbulent man: he proposed the most ef fectual arrangements, and, after the prin emal mutineer had been killed by a certain Abala, dispersed his adherents. Thus Cincinnatus was twice the deliverer of his country, which revered him as a father.

Cinna, Lucius Cornelius, an adherent of Marius, who, when Sylla had made himself odious by the proscription of Marius, obtained the consulship, and accused Sylla,

who was just going as proconsul to Asia, of mal-administration. Sylla thought it' not advisable to take notice of this complaint. When Cinna afterwards wished to carry by force a new law in favor of the allies, a bloody battle commenced in the forum between his party and the party of the senate, at the head of which stood Octavius, the other consul. Cinna and his party were conquered, and, with a loss, numerous off-sets shoot up. These, when of 10,000 men, were driven from the city. He flew to the allies, collected 30 legions, called the proscribed to his support, and, among these, Marius, made himself master stick. The cinnamon which they yield of Rome, and assented to the plan of Ma- as much finer than any other. A French rus to put to death all the senators who were opposed to the people. This massa-ere continued for five days. The following year, he, together with Marius, arbitrarily assumed the consuiship. Sylla now appeared, and Cinna wished to march against him, but his soldiers refused, and put him o death.

CINNA, Cornelius, a grandson of Pompey, was at the head of a conspiracy against Augustus, who generously forgave him, and even transferred to him the consulship. Umna was, therefore, devoted to the emperor, tilkhis death, with inviolable fidelity.

CINNABAR. (See Mercury.)

CINNAMON is the under bark of the branches of a tree of the bay tribe (laurus innamomum), which is chiefly found in the island of Ceylon, but which grows in Malabar, and other parts of the East Indies. This tree attains the height of 20 or 30 feet. Its leaves are oval, each from 4 to 6 melies long, and marked with three principal nerves. The flowers stand in slender footstalks, and are of a palevellow color; and the fruit is shaped somewhat like an acom. There are two prinapal sensons of the year, in which the Ceylonese enter their woods for the purpose of barking the cumamon-trees. first of these commences in April, and the last in November; the former being that m which the great crop is obtained. In this operation, the branches of three years' growth are cut down, and the outside-pel-bele of the bark is scraped away. The twigs are then ripped up lengthwise with a knife, and the bark is gradually loosened, till it can be entirely taken off. It is then cut into slices, and, on being exposed to the sun, curls up in drying. The smaller pieces, or quills, as they are called, are inserted into the larger ones, and these are afterwards tied into bundles. Cinnamon is examined and arranged according to its quality, by persons who, for this purpose, are obliged to taste and chew it.

This is a very troublesome and disagree able office, few persons being able to hold '. out more than two or three days successively, as the cinnamon deprives the tongue and lips of all the mucus with which they are covered. After this examination, the bundles are made up to the length of about 4 feet, and weigh about 88 pounds each. From the roots of the trees they have attained the height of about 10 feet, are cut down and barked, being then about the thickness of a common walking slup, bound, in 1782, from the island of Bourbon to cape François, in St. Domingo, and having on board various Oriental productions, the cinnamon-tree among the rest, was taken by admiral Rodney, who . presented the trees to the assembly of Ja. maica ; and from this parent stock, dit ferent parts of that island were afterwards supplied. In Ceylon, the cinnamon-trees are said to be so common as to be used for fuel and other domestic purposes. The smell of cinnamion, particularly of the thinnest pieces, is delightfully fragrant, and its taste pungent and aromatic, with considerable sweetness and astringency. If infused in boiling water, in a covered vessel, it gives out much of us grateful flavor, and forms an agreeable hquid. An oil is extracted from cumamon, which is heavier than water. This is prepared in Ceylon, and almost wholly from the small and broken pieces. It is made, however, m such small quantity, that the oil of cassia is generally substituted for it indeed, the cassia bark is often substituted for cmnamon, to which it has considerable resemblance, although in its qualities it is much weaker, and though it is immediately distinguishable by its slimy taste. The virtues of cumamon are not confined The leaves, the fruit and the to the bark. root, all yield oil of considerable value. That from the fruit is highly fragrant, of thick consistence, and, at Ceylon, was formgrly made into candles, for the sole use of the king.

CINO DA PISTOIA; a juris-consult and poet; born in 1270, at Pistoia, of the family of Smibuldi, or Sinibaldi. His proper name was Guittone, which the Florentines changed to Guittoneino, and then abbreviated it to Cino. He finished his studies at Bologna, and subsequently acted as judge in Pistoia till 1307, when the civil war, known by the name of the contest between the Neri and Bianchi, obliged him to flee. He first took refuge with a friend

on the borders of Lombardy, who also belonged to the party of the Bianchi, and whose daughter, Selvaggia, had gained his affection; but her death soon followed. Cino then travelled through Lombardy and France, and remained some time at Paris, but returned to Italy before 1314; for in that year he published, at Bologna, his commentary on the Justiman code, which he had completed in two years, and which excited universal admiration on account of its extent and the difficulty of the subject. In consequence of this, he received the diploma of doctor of law. . Several universities were anyons to secure his services. He hved three years at Treviso, and still longer at Perugua, where the famous Bartolo was his scholar. It is doubtful whether, as some assert, he actually instructed at Bologna, Sienna, and even at Paris; but he certainly was pro-fessor, in 1334, at the university of Florence. He taught the civil law. Petrarca and Boccaccio were not his scholars, as it has been said. Cino returned to Pistora m 1336, where he died in the same or the beginning of the following year. His commentary surpassed every thing of the kind which had appeared before, and went through several editions. He ranks amongst the best of the early Italian poets, and resembles Petrarca more than any of the other predecessors of this poet. His poems, the principal subject of which is the above-mentioned Selvaggia, were first published at Rome, in 1558, by Pilli. They afterwards appeared in Venice, increased by a second volume, which, however, was not con-idered genuine. most complete edition is that of Ciampi (Florence, 1812, 2d ed.) with the author's

CINQUE PORTS: gight scaports of England, on the coasts of Kent and Sussex-Dover, Sandwich, Hastings, Hithe, Romney, Winchelsea, Rye and Seaford. They were originally only five, the three latter having been declared ports subsequent to the first institution. They are under a lord warden, and are endowed with considerable privileges. They are all borough towns, sending each two members **!to parlia**ment, under the title of barons of the cinque ports. Though the aboveinentioned cineriave long since lost their importance, their harbors being filled with mud, so as not to admit men-of-war, most of their privileges continue, as does the office of the warden, a mere sinecure, of £2000 annual income.

(q. v.) They are either borrowed signs,

as, letters, with which, for instance, the Greeks and several tribes of the north of Europe designated their numbers; or peruliar characters, as the Roman and modern or Arabic ones. As the decimal system must be considered one of the grandest inventions of man, we must also acknowledge the system of numbers which we now use to be a proof of extraordinary genius and a deep, philosophi- , cal mind; and it cannot be doubted, that our progress in mathematical science, abstract and applied, would have been much ! slower without the Arabic ciphers, which, in fact, are indispensable to the great calculations which occur daily in modern astronomy. The ciphers, such as they are at present, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 0, did not attain their present character till a pretty late period. We have them from the Arabians, who, according to Abulpharagius (Dynast 1, p. 16), say that they received the invention from the Indians. According to a recent discovery of professor Seyffarth of Leipsic, in Turin, on a papyrus manuscript, it seems probable that the Egyptians were acquainted with the present system of ciphers, at least in its principles. As early as the 9th century, ciphers were used, though seldom, its France. Not until the 11th century did their use become, in any degree, common According to de Matthæs, the in Lurope. Roman embers are derived from the mails which the Enuscans, and after them the Romans, annually drove into their temples, in order to express their divisions of time. Probably the eldest trace of Roman ciphers is that in the inscription upon the colonna rustrata.

Cipher is also the name given to various methods of writing in secret characters, cheefly used in the correspondence of diplomatic agents with their courts. (See Cryptography and Deciphering.) A kind of inonogram, in which the initial letters of the Christian and family names of a person are entwined within each other, has the same name.

CIPRIANI, Giambattista; a painter and engraver, born at Pistoia, in 1732, died at London in 1785. His teacher is not known, but it is certain that Correggio was his model. At the age of 18, he went to Rome, to perfect himself in his art. His talents soon gained him reputation. Some Englishmen, who met him there, induced hum to go to London. He was one of the first fellows of the royal academy, instituted in 1769. His drawing is correct, his heads have grace and lovelings, his coloring is harmonious, and

the general impression of his composition charming. For Ariosto's Orlando Furioso he executed a number of copperplate illustrations, in which he displays all the beauty of his genius. Many fine engravings of Bartolozzi are from the designs of

Cipriani.

CIRCASSIA; a country of Asia, on the north side of the Caucasus, extending from me Black to the Caspian sea. The inhabitants call themselves Adige; by the Turks and Tartars they are called Tcherkas (i. e. highway robbers); by the Arabs, Memalik; by the Ossetes, likewise a nation dwelling on mount Caucasus, they are called Kasachi. They inhabit the districts, I. Great Kabarda; 2. Lattle Kabarda; 3. Beslen, on the greater Laba, which flows into the Kuban; 4. Temirgoi on the Schagwascha; 5. Abassa, chiefly on the river Pschaha; 6. Bscduch, in the lower districts of the Rhuasch; 7. Hadu-This powerful and kai; 8. Bechana. warlke nation might become extremely formidable, if, instead of being subject to numerous little princes, it were unfed un-ler one head. The most important of the Circassian branches of the Kuban are the Tenurgo: they inhabit more than 40 forutied villages, and can send 2000 men anto the field. The Schagacki, below the Russian fortress Anapa, have a prince, who formerly maintained vessels on the Black sea. The Kabarda Chreassians, a half-civilized nation, inhabit a fertile country on the northern frontier of the Terek, and are distinguished from all the other nations of the Caucasus by their beauty. The men are of lofty stature, regular feaures, and unequalled in the use of the sabre. The women have delicate figures, light complexions, dark hair, regular features, and full bosoms. They are considred the principal ornaments of the Turk-The Circassian prince or -h harams. nobleman, that is, every one who does not serve, and possesses a horse, is constantly armed with a dagger and pistols, and seldom leaves his house without his sabre and quiver. A helmet and a coat of mail cover his head and his breast. Kabarda furnishes 1500 noblemen, or uzdens, and 10,000 peasants, or serving-men, capable of bearing arms. But the princes of Kabarda destroy each other by constant hostilities. The soil of Kabarda is excellent for agriculture; but the winter is severe, and the warm season not of long duration. The inhabitants neglect the gifts of nature, viz. the mines, from which they might extract the most useful metals, such as iron and copper, for the manufacture of 18 voľ. ni.

their weapons. A great part of their wealth consists in goats, sheep, oxen and horses. They sell wool and wax. Their horses are distinguished for beauty, They burn a strength and fleetness. mark on the colts of a good breed. Their feudal system is worthy of notice. The subject is the property of the prince: although he cannot be sold, he is compelled to perform all personal services, but pays no taxes. The nobleman maintains order among the people, and serves the prince in war. The latter keeps an open table, and all those who own herds contribute to it. Marriages are concluded with reference to riches and birth. Immediately after the birth of a princely child, it is taken from the parental house, and its education confided to a nobleman. The boys are instructed in hunting, plundering and fighting; the girls in embroidering, sewing and plaiting straw. There is a law of hospitality among the Circussians, called kunadi: the life of the host is responsible for its observance to the stranger on whom it has been conferred. If a mender is committed, the relations of the deceased take the life of the murderer: no money can conciliate them. Formerly, these people were Christians. At present, they are Mchammedans, but by no er ens zeulous observers of the precepts of the Koran. After the downfait of the Chazaric empire, the Circavians appear to have been subject to the Arabians, Tartars, and perhaps, likewise, to the Georgians. Towards the end of the 16th century, they became vassals to the Russians. The czar Iwan Wasiliewitsch, in sans. 1565, sent a small army, under general Daschkow, to the aid of Temruk, a Circassan prince; but, after the death of Iwan, the Russian court neglected these distant subjects, and they became tributary to the khans of the Crimea, until, tired of the ill-treatment of their officers, they took up arms, and overcame an army of 30,000 At present, Tcherkassia (Circassa) -containing 31,785 sq. miles, and 550,000 inlabitants-is a province under the protection of Russia.

Circe; a powerful sorceress; according to some, the daughter of Sol and Person, one of the Oceanides; according to others, of Hyperion and Asterope; the sister of Actes and Pasiphac. She lived in a valley situated in an island on the western coast of Italy. Her palace was built of shining stones, in an open place, surrounded by tame lions and wolves. Her employment was weaving; and, during her work, she amused herself with singing: her servants

were four mountain and river nymphs. Ulysses, in his wanderings, landed on her island, and sent out Eurylochus with a them food and wine, and with her magic wand changed them into swme. Eurylochus only, by cautionsly abstaining from the magical potion, escaped the transformation, and informed Ulysses of the event. He immediately proceeded himself into the country to free his companions. On how to conduct himself before the sorceress, and gave him the plant called moly, as a means of delivering his companions. Thus armed, he appeared before Circe, whose potion had no effect upon him. Following Mercury's advice, he then ran upon her with his drawn sword, threatening her with death, and compelled her to bind herself by an oath to do him no mjury, and deliver his companions. Ulysses remained with her a whole year, and had by her two sons-Adrins, or Agrius, and Latinus. Before his departure, she told him that, in order to secure a safe return to his country, he must visit the infernal regions, and ask advice of Thresias.

Orrcle (Latin circulus); a plane figure comprehended under a single line which returns into uself, having a point in the middle, from which all the lines drawn to its circumference are equal. This point is called the centre, and these lines the Although, properly speaking, it is the space included within the periphery or circumference, yet, in the popular use of the word, circle is frequently used for the periphery alone. From the geometrical definition of the circle, it appears that its magnitude is dependent upon the magnitude of its radius or its diameter, i.e., a line which touches two points of the erreumference, and passes, at the subtime, through the centre, or, which is the same thing, a line equal to twice the length of the radius. The surface of the circle is equal to the product of the circumference and half the radius. If there existed a , rational proportion, that is, a proportion to · be expressed in whole numbers, of the surface of the circle to a square surface, there would be, at the same time, a rational proportion between the diameter and the circumference. But, from geometrical reasons, no rational proportion of the diameter to the circumference is possible; it can be expressed only by approximation. However, the proportion thus obtained is quite as accurate as is necessary for any purpose in the applied

mathematics. Yet there have always been instances, and some of a very late date. of men laboring long and intensely in searching for the square equal to the surface of the circle, and who often believed that they had actually solved the problem. Very recently, the newspapers were full of such a solution by a boy in England. In the approximate proportion, if the diameter is called 1, the circumference will He immediately proceeded himself into the country to free his companions. On the way, Mercury met him, informed him ber of figures. Afterwards it was further determined by Adrianus Romanus to 15, be equal to 3.1415926535 .... Francis by Ludolphus of Cologne (often improperly called von Keulen) to 35 (from him it is often called the Ludolphic number), by Sharp to 72, by Machin to 100, by Lagny to 126, and lastly, in an Oxford manuscript, it was obtained up to 156 decimals. Archimedes first estimated the proportion of the diameter to the circumference to be as 7 to 22, or as 1 to 3.142 . . . . ; after him, Metius, as 113 to 355, or as 1 to 3.1415929, which is correct to 6 decimals. and sufficiently accurate for most purposes. Every circle is divided into 360 degrees, and by its ares all angles are measured. The circle, therefore, is one of the most important geometrical figures, and an accurate division of it is requisite for measuring the angles under which Abstant objects appear (upon which surveying, astronomical observations, &c. rest)—a very desirable object, for which many prizes have been offered by learned societies. (See Degree.)-Circle, in logie; the fault of an argument that supposes the principle it should prove, and afterwards proves the principle by the thing which it seemed to have proved. The same fault takes place in definitions, when an idea is defined by others which suppose the knowledge of the first. Arguing in a circle is a fault into which men are very hable to fall, particularly in theological discussions.

Circuits; in England, divisions of the kingdom appointed for the judges to pass through twice in the course of a year for the purpose of administering justice in the several counties. The counties of England are divided into six circuits, and two judges go on each circuit.—In the U-States, the same name is given to the divisions of the country traversed annually by the judges of the supreme court of the U. States, for the purpose of trying causes which fall within the jurisdiction of the national courts. (For the circuit courts of the U. States, see Courts of the U. States.)

CIRCULAR MOTION. A body in motion,

which is continually impelled by some power towards a fixed point out of its original direction, is obliged to describe a curvilinear path round this point. A stone, slung round by a string, moves in a circle, because it is drawn toward the hand in' every point of its path. The moon moves in a circle round the earth, because it gravitates towards the earth, and is thus drawn from the rectilinear direction, which it would otherwise pursue. In such cases, the point to which the body constantly tends, is called the centre of the forces; the force itself, by which it is impelled, is called the centripetal force; that by which . it strives to fly from the centre is called the centrifugal force; and the motion which is produced by these two forces, the circular motion. All the planets in the solar system are carried round the sun, and the satellites round their planets, by these forces. (See Central Forces.)-The theory of circular motion is a subject of celestial mechanics, on which Newton composed his Principia Mathematica Philosoph. Natural, and Laplace his Micanique Cileste, &c. As the model of a concise and beautiful exposition, we recommend the article under this head in Gehler's Physikalisches Worterbuch (Dictionary of Natural Philosophy).

CIRCULAR SAWS, which revolve upon an axis, are preferable to straight saws, because they act continually in the same direction, and no force is lost by a backward stroke. At the same time, they can work with greater velocity, and, therefore, cut more smoothly. Their size, however, is limited, because they waver and bend out of the proper plane if made too large, and if they were made so as not to waver, they would be too thick. Slitting of tunber, therefore, is not often performed with thein, but they are much used for cutting thin layers of maliogany for veneering, for, in this case, the saw can be sufficiently strengthened towards the centre. Great velocity increases much the steadiness of a circular saw.

CIRCULATING MEDIUM. The expression circulating medium is now much more frequently used than formerly. It means the medium of exchanges, or purchases and sales, whether this medium be gold or silver coin, paper, or any other article, as oxen, tobacco, iron, slaves, usually employed in any place as the measure of the values of other articles, and is thus of a more comprehensive signification than the term money, which, though it applies to gold and silver coin,

various articles used for the above purpose, does not comprehend them all, since 'oxen, which have, by some nations, at some periods, been adopted as the measure of the comparative values of articles of commerce, would hardly be considered as coming under the denomination of money. It is hardly possible to imagine a people to be without a circulating medium of some description; and, accordingly, we find all the tribes of savages hitherto discovered referring to some article in estimating the value of the various commodities which compose their capital. Captain Franklin says, the Krees Indians use beaver skins as their medium, and estimute the value of things by a certain number of their skins. The people of Virginin, in the earlier periods of their colonial history, estimated value by pounds of tobacco. In some parts of Africa, a species of small shells, cowries, are the medium of exchanges. But from the earliest times. the precious metals, where they could be had, have been preferred for this purpose because their weight, fineness, and, consequently, value, could be more accurately ascertained than those of any other ar ticle, and thus comprise a sufficient value in a small compass and weight to be: convenient medium. Many species of precious stones comprise a greater valuin the same bulk and weight tuan eithe gold or silver, but their value cannot be so precisely estimated, nor are they found in sufficient quantities. Platina would be as convenient a medium as either gold o silver, provided it should continue to re tam its present value; but it has not as ye been produced in sufficient abundance It is one essential quality of a circulating medium, that at should have an intrinsic marketable value. Gold and silver, fo instance, besides answering as a medium have as positive a market value as iron tin, leather or corn. This value is deriv ed from their utility in the useful and or namental arts; and it may be more pre cisely ascertained than the value of mos other articles, since an agreement for . certain number of beaver skins, a certain quantity of tobacco, and still more for certain number of cattle, admits of som doubt and dispute as to the quality; bu an agreement for a certain weight of gold of given fineness, admits of no dispute; i can be reduced to the utmost certainty But we see other kinds of currency, which apparently answer the purpose of a circu lating medium, and which have very lath value. A small piece of paper, not worth paper currency, and some other of the intrinsically one cent, passes for many

thousand dollars; and this sometimes leads people into the mistaken notion that intrinsic value is not an essential quality in the public currency. But we must look at what is printed or written on this paper, to learn why it passes for currency. It bears a promise that the holder shall be entitled to a certain number of dollars; of course, a certain quantity of gold and silver, of a certain fineness. If this promise is valid, and will be kept, then the real medium is gold and silver, though this gold and silver may be locked up in a bank. But it may be said, that there is not, in the Banks, where bank paper circulates, and, perhaps, not in the community, more than one dollar in silver or gold for four dollars promised in the paper in circulation. How then can four dollars of paper be redeemed by one of silver? This is very easy. One holder of a paper dollar demands the silver at the bank, and passes it off, or keeps it in his purse. Now if the bank can induce this person, or the one to whom he passes the dollar, to let them have it again, that is, to loan it to them, or to take something in exchange for it, they can then, with the same silver dollar, redeem the second paper one, and so on. Thus a bank that has capital, and a good credit, will be always able to reciain and use the same specie successsively to redeem us paper, and, if it be skilfully conducted, it will always be able to command it as fast as its bills can be collected and presented for payment. A community, therefore, which only uses specie and redeemable paper as currency, has, to all practical purposes, a specie medium. The paper is, in short, so much specie, for all practical purposes, for it will command gold and silver. Here, then, is evidently an advantage gained; for, if a bank, by putting out dollar in its vaults. can loan out four dollars on interest, it the community loses mothing, but zams, rather; for this paper is much more convenient for transportation, and equally convenient in all other respects. It is a great object in every community to gain this advantage, arising from multiplication of money. Individuals, if not prolubited by the laws, will soon issue their paper money, and many of them make promises of paying dollars, which they cannot fulfil, and thus the public be defrauded. On the other hand, the government often makes the bubble by the issue of paper money, or promises of payment never to he fulfilled. There has rurely, if ever, been an instance of a government issuing

paper money, and redeeming it punctually, and to its full nominal amount. . Innumerable issues of this sort of circulating medium were made by the American colonies before the establishment of the independence of the U. States; and, during the war of independence, the country was immdated with what was called continental money, which was never redeemed. Russin and Austria have this species of currency in circulation, always depreciated, as is usual with such money. merly, the sovereigns of Europe had a practice of debasing the current coin, when they wished to levy a tax in disguise, so as to make the copper, with which they alloyed the silver, pass as of the value of silver. But, in modern times, instead of debasing the coin, the usual resort is to a government bank or to government paper. Government paper, issued as the ordinary currency, usually proves to be a bubble. And it may be taken for a general rule, that no currency is safe which is not of an intrinsic value, or is not based upon capital sacredly pledged to its redemption. The question then recurs, why the government may not pledge a certain amount of capital for the redemp-tion of its paper. The reason is, that this capital must be managed, and a vas' deal of skill and economy is requieste in managing a rest trable peper currency; and of all managers, the agents of a gov ernment are the least thrifty and economreal. Besides, the government will runn the credit of its own paper by excessive is sues in its exigencies in times of war, when the effects of a destruction of its credit are the most disastrons. The government, therefore, ought never to trust itself to be a banker, or to issue paper money, except m desperate circumstances or pressing exgences, when no other measure can be resorted to, and when what would oth makes a great income on its capital, while serwise be wrong and dishonest is excused. for the sake of preventing the greatest pational calamities. If, then, neither the gov ernment nor individuals can safely supply a circulating medium of promises, what system can be safely adopted, which shall afford all the advantages of a multiplication, in effect, of the medium of intrinsic value, namely, the gold and silver? Un doubtedly the system of bank circulation, whereby a certain capital is sacredly pledged to the redemption of the promises of payment of money made in the circulating bills. A well contrived, skilfully conducted system of banking, connected with one of circulation, is one of the greatest triumphs of national economy.

interest, as well as the reputation of individuals, is thus pledged in support of the system, and in furtherance of the general industry and prosperity. But shall individuals reap all the advantages of the practical multiplication of capital in consequence of supplying a currency based upon, but not consisting exclusively of specie? By no means. The government inay indirectly reap greater advantages from this system, than they possibly can from an attempt at becoming themselves bankers for the community, by sharing the profits with those who actually conduct the business. It is one of the properand most important functions of the government to regulate the currency. It is bound to interfere, with proper restrictions, for preventing the frauds and bubbles to which individual enterprise and speculation mevitably lead if let loose in the career of credit; and it has a profit, in so doing, by reaping some of the advantages of a bank circulation, and thus gaming an income without, in fact, levying a tax. Thus, if, as in some of the U. States, the circulation of the notes of individuals, as a currency, is prohibited, and certain institutions have a right by charter to supply the currency by an issue of their bank notes, on paying to the government a certain bonus, as a certain per cent, on then capital, or the amount of the bills which they keep in circulation, or the amount of the dividends made on their stock, or on undertaking, as the bank of the U. States does to render certain services in collecting the revenue and making remittances, the government derives a revenue from its right to regulate the currency; and yet no one, in fact, pays this amount to the government as a tax, for the banks which pay it receive a consideration in the privilege of supplying the currency. As long as the government does not bear oppressively upon this species of monopoly, by attempting to levy an excessive tax for the privilege, and thus discouraging it, a liberal income may be derived from the substitution of promises on paper, instead of gold and silver, for the ordinary purposes of circulation and exchange, and, at the same time, such guarantees may be provided as to prevent abuse and fraud, and render this currency as safe as that of. specie.

(Sec CIRCULATION OF THE BLOOD.

Physiology.)

CIRCUMCISION; the custom prevailing among several Eastern nations of cutting off the prepuce of the virile member. The most ancient nation among whom 18 \*

this custom prevailed was the Egyptians; and we find it still among the aborigines of Egypt, even among the Christian Copts (q. v.), and the Abyssinians (q. v.), who profess Christianity, and other African nations, who seem to have received it, like the Abyssinians, from the Egyptians. The Jews perform this ancient ceremony, by which the descendants of Abraham were to be distinguished from other nations, as a rite instituted by God, on the eighth day 'after the birth. The circumcised person is, as it were, naturalized by this ceremony, or introduced among the people of God. Moses found it among the nation, and con-The Moliammedan circumfirmed it. cision is probably an ancient Ishmaelite custom, which the Ishmaelites and the Israelites received from their common father, Abraham. The Koran of Mohammed did not introduce circumcision; it was already in use among his nation, and was introduced by them, with Islam-15m, as a sacred rite, into all countries where their religion was received. The original object of this custom was probably the promotion of cleanliness, which is doubly necessary among the inhabitants of hot countries, for the prevention of many diseases; but it is a mistake to suppose that it increases fertility. There is also a kind of circumcision, or excision, performed on the female sex. in Egypt, Mohammedan maidens are often circumcised: and the Abyssinians circumcise both seves. The word circumcised is often used in the Old Testament to denote the Jews.

Circumcision is also the name of a feast. celebrated on the first of January, in commemoration of the circumcision of our Savior. The day was unciently celebrated as a fast, in opposition to the customs of the pagans, who teasted on it in honor

of the god Janus.

CIRCUMNAVIGATORS. Magellan, a Portuguese, was the first of those intrepid men, who, following in the path of Columbus, traversed the ocean from the east to the west, and, pursuing this direction, at last returned to their country. He circumnavigated the world in 1519-21. In his passage through the straits of Magellan. or round cape Horn, into the southern seas, he was followed by the Spanjards (Fuca, Mendaina, Quiros, and others down to Malaspina), by the French (Bougainville, La Peyrouse, q. v., and others, down to Freycinet, q. v.), by the Dutela (Baarents, Heemskerk, Hertoge, Tas-man, Roggewein), by Englishmen and Russians (from Deschneff to Krusenstern,

and Otto von Kotzebue, q. v.), and, lastly, by North Americans. The English, as was to have been expected, have made 'the most numerous and important voyages round the world. Fifty years after Cabot, Hugh Willoughby (1553) reached Nova Zembla, on his northern expedition. All attempts since made to enter the Pacific by a north-eastern or north-western pasrage have been fruitless. (See Expeditions to the North Pole.) But the 11 voyages to the north-east and north-west by Frobisher, Gilbert, Davis, Weymouth (1591), and several other navigators, were lands and productive fisheries, to which they lcd. At the same time, Francis Drake made a voyage round the carth. Cavendish, Chidley and Hawkins followed their great predecessors to the south, but less successfully. Amongst the bold navigators who undertook great expeditions in the 17th century, Hudson, Buffin, Dampier, Halley and Woods Rogers, were distinguished by the importance of their discoveries. Woods Rogers proceeded to 62-53 S., and the Russian captain Bellinghausen to 70°, in the year 1840. (Rogers brought Alex. Selkirk, the repined Crusoe, home with him.) 30 years after Rogers, lord Anson (1741-44) made a voyage round the world. With him commences a great era in the discoveries in the South seas, embracing the entire Polynésia. Then followed the voyages of discovery by Carteret and Walls (1767). The voyages of Cook, beginning in 1770, made a new era in circumnavigation. Vancouver made geographers and navigators well acquainted with the north-western coast of America. (See Kotzebue, Otto von; Krusenstern, and Voyages.) The latest Voy. autour du Monde is that of captain Duperra, in the Coquille, made by command of Louis XVIII, in 1822—25 (6 vols 4to., with an atlas of 375 pages, published in numbers, Paris, 1828).

CIRCUMVALLATION, OF LINE OF CIR-CUNVALLATION, in inditury affers, implies a fortification of earth, consisting of a parapet and trench, made round the town intended to be besieged, when any moles-\*tation is apprehended from parties of the enemy which may march to relieve the place.

Circus, among the Romans; an oblong building without a roof, in which public chariot-races and exhibitions of pugilism and wrestling took place. It was rectangular, except that one short side formed a half circle; the entrance was at the opposite end. Within, on each ride

of the entrance, were six arcades (carceres), where the chariots stood. On both the sides, and on the semicircular end, were the seats of the spectators, rising gradually one above another, like steps, and resting on strong arches. At the foot of the seats there was a broad ditch, called euripus, to prevent the wild beasts from leaping among the spectators. Within was an open space (atena), covered with sand, where the games were exhibited. This, space was divided lengthwise into two parts by a wall (spina), 12 feet thick and 6 high, adorned with little temples, altars, important from the discoveries of new statues, obelisks, pyrannds and conical towers Of these last (meter) there were three at each end, which served as goals, round which the circuits were made. By the first meta, opposite the curved end of the circus, there were seven other pillars, with oval balls (ora) on their summits. One of these balls was taken down for every circuit. On the outside, the circus was surrounded with colonnades, galleries, shops and public places. The largest of these buildings in Rome, the circus maximus, was situated in the 11th district of the city, which was thence sometimes called circus marimus, and on the spot where Romulus exhibited the games at winch the Sabme women were carried off. Tarquinius Priscus projected the plan of this building, and some of the wealthy sciators completed it. The hidmagni were celebrated in it. Dionysus of Hahramassus gives its length at 95314. feet, and the breadth at 2187 feet. According to Play, it was capable of contaming 260,000, and according to Aurelius Victor, 385,000 speciators. Julius Cusac enlarged and ornamented it. Under Nero. it was burnt, and under Antonnus Phys pulled down. Trajan rebuilt it, and Constantine made further additions to it. A: present, but few vestiges of it remain The circus of Caracalla, in the first distric: of the city, is in the best preservation (See Hippodrome.)

Circus, Games of the (so called from the circus (q. v.), particularly the circus maximus, where they were exhibited). Romulus celebrated similar games in honor of Neptune. Afterwards, by the mutual rivalry of the adiles, their splendor was mcreused. Under the emperors, they attained the greatest magnificence. The principal games of the circus were the ludi Romani or magni, called, also, from an epithet of Cybele, megalenses, which were celebrated from the 4th to the 14th of September, in honor of the great gods. so called. The passion of the people for

these shows appears from the cry with which they addressed their rulers—Panen et circenses! (Bread and the games!) splended procession, or pompa, opened the festival. The images of the great gods were carried to the temple of Jupiter, on the Capitoline mount; the procession, moved from this temple through the forms, and the street called Velabrum, to the circus maximus. The chief magnetrate led the procession. Before him was carried the image of the winged goddess of Fortune (Fortuna alata). Then came troduced, and in later times, perhaps, those of the deitied emperors also. These anages were in splendid covered chariots, drawn by horses or mules, stags, camels, elephants, also sometimes by hons, panthers or tigers. After the pompous pro-cession of gods followed rows of boys, who had lost either father or mother, and who led the horses to be used in the races. After these followed the sons of the patricians, from 15 to 16 years of age, armed, part on horseback, part on foot. After these came the magistrates of the city and the senate. The sons of knights, on horseback and on foot, brought up the rear. Then followed the chariots and horses destrued for the races, and the different athleta, as pughsts, wrestlers, runners, all naked, except a covering about the loins. In this procession were included the dancers, youths and boys, arranged in rows, according to their age. They were violet-colored garments, with brass belts, and carried swords and short spears. The men wore belinets. Each division was preceded by a man who led the windings of the dance. The musicians followed, including a number of persons dressed like Silem and Satyrs, who, with large wreaths of flowers in their hands, exhibited various sportive dances, with a company of musicians behind them. To this exhibition of wild, unrestrained joy, succeeded the religious pomp. First came the Camilli,—boys whom the priest employed in the sacrifices,-then the servants who took part in it; after these the haruspices, with their knives, and the butchers, who led the victims to the altar; the different orders of priests, with their servants; first, the high priest (pontifex maximus), and the other pontifices; then the flamines, then the augurs, the quindeciment with the Sybilline books, the vestal virgins, then the remaining inferior orders of priests, according to their rank. The images of the gods brought

up the rear; sometimes, also, a pompous show of treasures, the spoils of war. In the circus, the procession went round once in a circle, and the sacrifices were then performed. The spectators took their places, the music struck up, and the games commenced. These were, 1. Races with horses and chariots. These were so honorable, that men of the highest rank The whole race, in engaged in them. which the competitors were divided into 4 parties, consisted of 24 courses, and each course of 7 circuits, making about the images of Jupiter, Juno, Minerva, seven miles. Each party performed six Neptune, Ceres, Apollo, Diana; after the courses, three in the forenoon and three death of Julius Carsar, his image was in-in the afternoon. The chariots were very in the afternoon. The chariots were very light, and commonly had two or four horses (abreast) attached to them. 2. The gy mustic contests. 3. The Trojan games, prize contests on horseback, which Æneas was said to have first instituted, and Julius Casar revived. 4. The combats with wild beasts, in which beasts fought with beasts or with men (criminals or vol-unteers). The expense of these games was often unmense. Pompey, in his second consulship, brought forward 500 lions at one combat of wild beasts, which, with 18 elephants, were slain in five days. 5. Representations of naval, engagements (naumachia), for which purpose the circus could be laid under water,

CISALPINE REPUBLIC. After the battle of Lodi (May 10, 1796), Bonaparte, on the 20th of May, proclaimed the freedom of Lombardy, and formed of it the Transpadane republic; at the same time, Bologna and Ferrara were crected into the Cispadane republic, to which Modena and Reggio were soon after added. February 19, 1797, by the peace of Tolentino, the pope ceded Bologna and Ferrara, together with Roungua, and the province of Mesola, to the French; the latter were also added to the Cispadane republic. This republic received its constitution March 17, 1797, and was united with the Transpadane, under the name of the Cisalpine republic By this name the emperor of Germany recognised it as an independent power, a: the peace of Campo-Formio (Oct. 17). It comprised Austrian Lombardy, together with the Mantuan and the Venetian provinces, Bergamo, Brescia, Crema, Verona and Rovigo, the duchy of Modene, the principality of Massa and Carrara, and the three ecclesiastical delegations—Bologna, Ferrara with Mesola, and Romagua. Oct. 22, in the same year, the Valtelme or Veltlin, Worms and Cleves, belonging to the Grisons, were added; so that the new republic, which was divided into 10 depart-

34 millions of inhabitants. The legislative body, composed of a council of 80 elders, together with another council of 160 members, and the directory (directorium), held their sessions in Milan. The army (French troops in the pay of the republic) amounted to 20,000 men. In March, 1798, it was more closely connected with France by a defensive and offensive alliance, and a commercial treaty. sulta) of 50, and an executive council (governo) of 9 members. On the 6th of September, it was enlarged by the addition of the Novarese and Tortonese, and, at the peace of Lunéville (Feb. 9, 1801), was again acknowledged by Austria. Jan. 25, 1802, it received the name of the Italian republic, and elected Bonaparte president, and Francis Melzi d'Erile vicepresident. It was then divided into 13 departments; but, in 1805 (March 17), a deputation of the Italian republic conferred on the French emperor the dignity of king of Italy (see Italy), after which Napoleon was styled empereur des Francais et roi d'Italie.

CISPADANE REPUBLIC. (See Cisulpine

Republic.)

CISPLATANA, with Monte-Video. Paraguay, and Plata, Republic of.)

CISRHENISH REPUBLIC. Several towns on the Rhine, particularly Cologue, Aixla-Chapelle and Bonn, at the time when so many republics were created, declared themselves independent, under French protection, and took the title of Cisrhenish republic, in September, 1797. But at the peace of Campo-Formio (Oct. 17, 1797), the left bank of the Rhine, in tuding the Cisrhemsh republic, was ceded to France, by a secret article, and the confederation bearing this name is, in consequence, hardly known.

CISTERCIANS; a religious order, which takes its name from its original convent, Citeaux, not far from Dijon, where the society was formed, m 1000. Through the exertions of St. Bernard de Claurvaux (q. v.), it had increased so much, 100 year after its origin, as to embrace 800 rich abbeys, in different countries of Europe. The Cistercians dedicated themselves to a contemplative life. Their rule was severe. They succeeded in freeing

ments, comprised 16,337 square miles and themselves from the superintendence of the bishops, and formed a kind of spiritual republic. A high council, consisting of the abbot of Citeaux as superior, the abbots of Clairvaux, La Ferte, Pontigni and Morimond, all in France, and 20. other definitores, governed the body, under the immediate superintendence of the pope. In France, they called themselves Bernardines, in honor of St. Bernard. Among the fraternities emanating from disunited, for a short time, by the successes of the Austrians and Russians, but soon restored by Bonaparte's victory at Marengo (June 14, 1800). The republic then received a deliberative basis (1997) and the pists. Riches and indolence brought and the pists. convents ceased to exist before the reformation, still more afterwards, partly by gradual decay, partly by falling into other The general fate of the religious \* orders, during the period of the French revolution, reduced the Cistercians to a few convents in Spain, Poland, the Austrian dominions, and the Saxon part of Upper Lusana. They wear white robes, with black scapularies.

CITADEL, OF CITTADEL (a diminutive of the Itahan città, city; signifying little city), in fortification; a kind of fort, consisting of four, five or six sides, with bas tions, commonly joined to towns, and sometimes erected on commanding emnences within them. It is distinguished from a castle by having bastions.

CITRIC ACID' (acidum citricum) exists, m variable proportions, in the lemon-grange, and the red acid fruits. This acid is white, crystallizes in rhomboidal prisms, unalterable in the air, inodorous, of a very acid taste. Specific gravity, 1.034. According to Messis, Gay-Lussac and Thenard, it is composed of carbon, 33.81, oxygen, 59.859, and hydrogen, 6.330. Heated, at is decomposed, and is partly changed into a new ackl, called pyro-citric. It is very soluble in boiling water, and in threefourths of its weight of cold water. Alcohol dissolves a smaller proportion. The aqueous solution, concentrated in a small degree, is easily altered on exposure to the air. It is obtained by saturating the lemon juice with pulverized chalk, and treating the insoluble citrate which is formed, by diluted sulphuric acid. It is employed instead of lemon juice for making lemonade, and it acts then like the other refrigerant medicines. In large doses, and concentrated, it might produce serious ac-cidents, on account of its caustic action.

CITRON. The citron, hime and lemon

rent stock of which (citrus medica) was imported from Asia into the southern parts of Europe. The citron is oblong, with a very thick rind; the lemon is oblong, with a small lump or protuberance at the end; and the lime has no protuberance, has a very thin rind, and is about the size of a small egg. These are the principal marks of difference betwixt these finits, but they are not quite constant. The lemon shrub has large and slightlyindented shining leaves, of somewhat oval shape, but pointed, and on the footstalks of the leaves there is no remarkable appendage. The flowers are large and white, but purplish on the outside of the petals.-It is generally supposed that the cittou-tree was first introduced from Assyria and Media into Greece, and thence into the southern parts of Eu-rope, where it is now cultivated to considerable extent. It is also raised in the islands of the West Indies. The fruit, partaking of the same quality as the lemon, with the exception of being somewhat less acid, is seldom eaten raw, but, preserved in sugar, as a sweetmeat, is much used by confectioners and others. It is also occasionally employed in medicine. The lemon is a native of Upper Asia, from whence, like the citron, it was brought into Greece, and afterwards transplanted into Italy. The juice, which is one of the sharpest and most agreeable of all acids, is used in cookery, contectionary, medicine, and various other ways. By caheo-printers, it is very extensively employed, as a discharger of color, to produce, with more clearness and effect, the white-figured part of colored patterns dyed with colors formed from iron. The juice is procured by simply squeezing the fruit, and straining it through linen or any loose filter; and in Sicily and other parts of the Mediterrancan, it forms an important article of commerce. Being one of the most valuable remedies for the scurvy with which we are acquainted, it generally constitutes part of the sea-stores of ships that are destined for long voyages. Several different modes have been recommended for the preserving of lemon-juice. One of these is, to put it into bottles with a small quantity of oil, which, floating on the surface, prevents the immediate contact of the air, and retards the decomposition of the acid, though the original fresh taste soon gives place to one which is less grateful. In the East Indies, lemon-juice is sometimes

are different varieties of the fruit of a evaporated, by a gentle heat, to the con-small evergreen shrub, the original or pa-sistence of a thick extract. Sometimes it is crystallized into a white and acid salt; but what is sold in the shops under the name of essential salt of lemons, for tak-ing out ink-stains and iron-mould-spots from linen, is only a preparation from the juice of sorel. The external part of the rind has a grateful aromatic and bitter taste, which renders it useful in cookery. When dried, it is considered a good stomachic, promotes the appetite, and is otherwise serviceable as a medicine. It is often candied and made into a sweetmeat, ainder the name of lemon chips. In distillation, it yields a light and almost colorless oil, which, in smell, is nearly as agreeable as the fresh peel, and is frequently employed as a perfume. Lemons are sometimes preserved in sirup. Small ones, with thick rinds, are converted into a grateful pickle. Marmalade and sirup are also made of them. For the purpose of keeping the fruit, it is recommended that a fine pack-thread, about a quarter of a yard long, should be run through the pro-tuberance at the end of the lemon. The ends of the string are to be tied together, . and suspended on a hook, in an airy situation, in such a manner that the lemon may hang perfectly free and detached.-The cultivation of the lime as much attended to in several parts of America and the West Indies. Its juice affords a more grateful acid than that of the lemon.

CITTÀ, in geography; the Italian word for city, which is used in many proper names of cities, as Città Castellana, Città Ducale, Città Nuova, &c.

CITY, in history. Mankind have been twice indebted for civilization and liberty to cities. With them civilization and pohtical institutions began, and in them were developed the principles of democracy or of equal rights in the middle ages. The origin of cities belongs to the earliest period of history. According to Moses, Nimrod built three, among which Babylon was the most important. The Jews believe, though without foundation, that Shem erected the first city after the deluge. At the commencement of society, the form of government was patriarchal. The ruler was the head of the family or clan. Relationship, the innate wish of men to live in society, and, more, perhaps, than both these causes, the necessity of providing means of defence against more powerful clans, brought together separate families into one spot. The fertility of the East, also, was an inducement to men to give up the rambling life of nomades,

These settlers began to barter with those tribes who continued to wander with their herds from place to place. Thus cities sprung up. These were soon surrounded with walls, to prevent the inroads of the wandering tribes. The bond of connexion between their inhabitants thus became closer, and their organization more complete. As by degrees the chiefs of these family-states died away, the citizens began to elect the most able or most popular men for magistrates, without respect to birth or descent. Thus political institutions began to assume a systematic character. The earliest form of government succeeding the patriarchal state was probably monarchical. In this, the religious, paternal and political au-thority remained rudely mingled. The thority remained rudely mingled. authority of the king was weak, his connexion with the different parts of his dominions imperfect, and the progress of , civilization was promoted almost solely by the growth of the cities. These gave rise to the division of labor, the refinements of social intercourse, the developement of laws caused by the conflicting interests of many people hving close together, the 'idea of equality of rights, the diminution of awe for a distant monarch, the growth of patriotism, springing from the sense of advantages enjoyed, and the exertions necessary to maintain them. These were the salutary consequences of the establishment of cities. Under the mild sky of Asia, Africa, Greece and Italy, emes were built first, and in the greatest number. The Phonicians and Egypuans particularly distinguished themselves by the erection of cities, which soon attained a high degree of wealth, and consequently of evilization. The Egyptians considered their city Diospolis (Thebes) older than any of the Greek cities, and Phny sa, s that Cecropa (erected in Attica by Cecrops, 1582 B. C., and afterwards called Athens) was the oldest city of Greece. Heeren justly remarks, that the rise of cities was the most important source of · the republicanism of antiquity. This is particularly true of Greece. In fact, cates are, by their very nature, of a republican tendency. Several confederations of cates existed in the succent world; for instance, the Phonician, consisting of the cities of Tyre, Sidon, &c., and the Achaean league, formed by the most important cities of Greece, in order to strengthen themselves 'against the power of Macedon. Under Augustus and his successors, the Romans began to establish colonial cities in Ger-

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and to form permanent settlements, many, having done the same long before in Gaul, Spain, Africa, &c. In Switzerland, they first erected cities about A. D. 70, which, however, were mostly laid waste by the Alemanni, and subsequently rebuilt under the government of the Franks (A. D., 496). The Germans, accustomed to a wild, rambling life, did not show any disposition to live in cities, until Charlemagne labored to collect them together in settled abodes, from his desire to civilize them. Henry I distinguished himself particularly in this way, and, on this account, has been called, by some, Henry the City-builder (der Städteerbauer). He give the cities great privileges, in or-der to induce his subjects to live in them, and thus laid the foundation of that power, which, at a future period, contributed most to break down the feudal system. In many cities, imperial castles were crected to protect the inhabitants, and the insupexercised by the feudal lords upon their peasants, or by the wandering knights and robbers, drove many people into the cities. The attacks of the neighboring lords gave firmness to their union, and compelled them to cultivate their resources. Commerce and the various arts and trades were soon cultivated within their walls. and their wealth and respectability in-oreased. They soon became sensible of the want of a better system of laws and political administration than prevailed around them, and the principle of equal rights and laws was quickly developed.

One of the most important remnants, if not the most important, of the great fabric of ancient civilization, was the cities of Italy. What the world would have be come without them is not to be calculated. In spite of their bloody contests with each other, and the vices to which these gave rise, they must be considered as having lighted the torch of modern civilization. It was not the monarchies, it was not the courts of the great princes, it was the cities of Northern Italy, which opened the way for the progress of improvement; and the petty princes of Italy caught from them the spirit which prompted their efforts to promote it. Under the reign of Conrad III (1138-52), the cities of Lombardy, and particularly Milan, which stood at their head, had acquired a high degree of wealth and power, and had formed themselves into a confederation. struggles between the emperors and these cities form one of the most unportant portions of the history of the German em-pire and of Italy. Frederic 1 in valu

demolished the powerful city of Milan. It was soon rebuilt, and the cities of Lombardy, in alliance with the pope, obliged the emperor to conclude with them a very disadvantageous peace at Constance. Two other confederations of cities, highly important, were formed during the interregnum of the German empire, between 1256 and 1272. One of them was the powerful Hansa, or Hanscatic league (q. v.); the other, the confederacy of the High German and Rhenish citics, from the foot of throughout a country, and, in fact, are the Alps to the mouth of the Mayne, estab-more important, in this point of view, lished by Walpode of Mentz, in 1255. A similar confederacy, and a very important one, was that of the Buabian cities instituted in 1488, to repel the outrages of the tendal lords and knights. By degrees, the cities acquired, in the different countries of Europe, the right of representation in the legislative bodies; and wealth, industry, knowledge and equal laws, spread from them through Europe. But the cities of Lombardy, though still flourisling and wealthy, had fallen, for the most part, under the rule of single families; their republican governments vanshed, and their confederation was dis-The associations of German cities experienced a similar fate. By the peace of Westphaha, the princes of the German empire were declared sovereign powers, and the more their authority increased, the more did the relative weight of the cities diminish. These had formerly suffered from the oppressions of the feudal lords. They were now the victims of the policy of the heighboring punces, whom envy often led to adopt the most unwarrantable measures against the cities, many of which had lost their independence before Napoleon dissolved the German empire. He took away the privileges of those which remained free; and the congress of Vienna restored freedom to Lubeck, Hamburg, Bremen and Frankfort only because the different powers could not agree to exercise in a pure atmosphere, and to whom they should be assigned. At the simple, regular diet, are gradually sacri same time, Cracow (q.v.) was declared in independent city, with a republican form of government. (For further information, see the articles Germany and Italy.) The following works contain much information on the rise and progress of cities:-Fr. Kortum's History of the Origin of the. Leagues of the Free Cities in the Middle Ages and in Modern Times (in German), Zürich, 1829; Enchhorn On the Origin of the Cities in Germany, in his periodical Zeitschrift für geschichtliche Rechtswissenschaft, vol. i, page 147 et seq. Von

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Savigny, Schott, and others, have written on this interesting subject.

Cities, considered in regard to politics. Cities, as we have already said, naturally develope the democratic principle, and, on this and several other accounts, are to be considered among the firmest supports of liberty. Well-organized municipal institutions, in which the government is in the hands of the citizens, afford continual nourishment to the spirit of freedom than the mere possession of legislative privileges. Wise nations, therefore, have bestowed the greatest attention on the establishment of free, well-organized municipalities, while others have neglected this, in their zeal to secure the right of representation to the people at large. The importance of cities, in this respect, makes it very difficult, in a constitutional monarchy, to combine the necessary liberty of municipalities with the prerogatives of the monarchs. In France, this has been a point of contest and legislation ever since the establishment of the charter.

Medical Statistics of Cities. [The following account of the comparative mortality in large European cities is given m the October number of the Medico-Chrurgical Review, London, 1829.] It is well known, that, in any given country the deaths in a city are more numerous than those in the rural districts. This difference is principally felt in the first 5 years of life, when many more die ir London than in the country. From \$ years of age to 20, the deaths in Londor are fewer. Between 20 and 50, many more die in London, on account of the large annual influx front the country. all cities, a large portion of disease and death is to be assigned to the constant im pertation from the country of individual who have attained to maturity, but, hav ing been previously habituated to frequen ficed to confined air, sedentary habits, o a capricious and over-stimulating de These causes are not equally fatal to thos who have passed their early years within the walls of a city; and, after the age o 50, the proportion of deaths in London i smaller than in the country. Jenner, and very recently, doctor Baron, have mad some curious experiments on animals which indicate that a loss of their open range and natural nourishment has, with them also, a tendency to disorganize and to destroy. Doctor Baron placed a family

. of young rabbits in a confined situation, and fed them with coarse green food, such as cabbage and grass. They were perfectly healthy when put up. In about a month, one of them died. The primary step of disorganization was evinced in a over the external surface of its liver. In another, which died 9 days after, the disease had advanced to the formation of tubercles on the liver. The liver of a third, which died 4 days later still, had nearly lost its true structure, so universally was it pervaded with tubercles. Two days subsequently, a fourth died. A considerable number of hydatids were attached to the lower surface of the liver. At this time, doctor Baron removed three young rabbits from the place where their companions had died to another situation, dry and clean, and to their proper and accustomed food. The lives of these remaining three were obviously saved by this change. He obtained similar results from experiments of the same nature performed on other animals.—In Glasgow, the average annual mortality is about 1 in 44 persons.—In Paris, the poor and the 11ch occupy the two extremnics of the scale. The mortality in the one is nearly double that in the other. The average is 1 in 32. The number of violent deaths, in 1823, was 690, of which 390 were cases of suicide. Reviewing, on one side, the great political, moral and physical events which have occurred at Paris during a · accession of years, and, on the other, the , rogress of its population. Villerme has ascertained, that whenever the people nave suffered from any cause, the deaths have correspondingly increased, the births have decreased, and the mean duration of life has been shortened. In periods of prosperity, he has found results directly opposite to these. The mean duration of hie in Paris is 32 years and some months. It was formerly estimated that one third of the inhabitants of Paris died in the hospitals; but Dupin has lately calculated that half the deaths in Peris take plack in the hospitals and other asylums of charity. Not a fourth part of the inhabitants are buried at private cost .- In Geneva, the · average mortality for the four years ending. in 1823 was 1 in 43, which is a greater mortality than in some of the largest manufacturing towns, as Glassow, Manchester and Birmingham.—Pctersburg. It is curious that the burials effect the births in the Russian capital, by 134 to 100. The Russians attempt to explain this by the annual influx of per-

sons from the provinces. But this influx is not peculiar to St. Petersburg. The last-mentioned city and Stockholm are the only known metropolitan cities which present the preponderance of death over production. The annual mortality of the number of transparent vesicles, studded Russian capital is 1 in 37.—Berlin. From .. 1747 to 1755, the annual mortality of Berlin was 1 in 28. Between 1726 and 1799, it improved to 1 in  $29\frac{1}{11}$ . Here the beneficial change was returded by the ravages, the losses, the disappointments of war, and, from 1802 to 1806, it had retrograded to 1 in 27; but from 1816 to 1822, a period of exultation and tranquillify to the Prussians, the value of life took a remarkable leap, and the annual deaths fell to less than 1 m 31 .- Vienna. In the middle of the last century, the mortality of Vienna was 1 in 20, and it has not improved in proportion as other cities of Europe. According to the most recent calculations, it is, even now, as 1 m 224. Among 10,530 deaths, scarcely 38 persons are found to have attained the age of 90. The spirit of excessive regulation, the dread of novelty, the restrictions imposed on the medical profession, and political causes which need not be enumerated, appear to have retarded the natural progress of this city. The overweening paternity of the government in-Aerferes with the trivial concerns of the cuizins, in the same manner in which an arbitrary and untaught father sometimes restrains the useful impulses of his children, while he permits an easy vent to their baser propensities.—Prague, the capital of Bohemia, has only one third the population of Vienna, and is much healther. The superior longevity of the Jews is strongly marked in this city. One death is annually observed among 26 of the Israelites, and 1 in 224 among the Christians. Instances of considerable longevity, especially among the women, are not rare. Contrary to the usual observation, longevity is confined to poverty and married life. According to an average of several years, no nobleman, no wealthy person, no bachelor, and no unmarried woman, has passed the age of 95. This is an interesting fact, but it is an extreme and an insulated one, and does not militate against the general conservative tendency of prosperity, which a variety of evidence seems to establish.-Palermo. Mortality is here 1 in 31. January, October and November are the most fatal months; April, May and June the most healthy.—Leghorn. The average annual mortality here is 1 in 35. Among the

Protestants and Jews, it is only 1 in 48. which is attributed to their greater afflu- Our authority affirms that this vice deence.-Rome. From a recently discovered fragment of Cicero (De Republica), an intimation is conveyed that the neighborhood of Rome has been always un-Speaking of the choice of situahealthy. tion made by Romulus, he observes locum delegit in regione pestilente salubre n. The population appears to have been gradually decreasing till the last peace, which has greatly revived it. In 1800, there were 150,000 souls; in 1810, only 123,000. Within a few years, it has gain-ed 10,000. The annual mortality is about 1 in 25. There can be little doubs that the force of the aguish disposition of Rome might be considerably weakened by steady and well-directed efforts, supported by a proportionate capital; but it is to be feared that such a combination of circumstances will not readily meet at Rome. In 1816, 17 out of the 22 French students were attacked with intermittent fevers. The Villa Medici, in which they reside, was formerly healthy; but water, brought at a great expense to embellish the garden, had been suffered to stagnate there.—Naples. The annual mortality here is cl'in 23; a fact that one would not have expected in such a delightful situation, compared with postilential Rome, where the mortality is lesse The population of Naples is nearly three times that of the ancient mistress of the , world.—Brussels. The average mortality is very great, being 1 in 26.—. Imsterdam. The population of this once Breat city is a inhabitants, and the last Bristol, with decreased, in consequence of declining commerce and political changes. And it is not a little curious, as well as melancholy, to observe that its mortality has increased with the progress of decay. In 1777, the ratio of mortality was 1 in 27a period when Amsterdam was one of the healthiest as well as one of the most flourishing emes of Europe. The deaths have now increased to 1 in 24, and Amsterdam is one of the least licalthy as well as least prosperous scaports of Europe. A decree has been issued, that after the 1st of January, 1829, no burnals shall be permitted in towns or churches throughout North Holland .- Stockholm. Drunkenness appears here, as at Berlin, to produce a large share of the mortality. In a recent year, this city exhibited a singular instance of an excess of 1430 more deaths than births—a symptom which it is pamful to observe in a brave and industrious people. This disproportion existed particularly amongst the garrison, and is VOL. 111.

ascribed to the immoderate use of brandv. stroys the happiness and prosperity of Sweden more effectually than any war has ever done.

The medical police of large cities deserves particular attention, because the bealth of multitudes depends upon the care which is taken by the magistrates to remove the causes of disease which originate in a great population. Knowledge of this branch of medical science can be obtained only by attentive observation, and the study of the different health-regulations of large cities under governments which have paid particular attention to it.

Cittes, in geography. A late German publication gives a statement of the hundred most populous cities in the world. Among these are

mong these are	•	Inhah
Jeddo, in Japan		1,680,000
Pekin,		1,500,000
London,		1,300,000
Haug-tcheou		1,100,000
Calcutta		. 900,000
Madras,		. 817,000
Nankin, 1		. 800,000
Canyon,		. 800,000
Paris		. 717,000
Vou-tchang,	: .	. (600,000)
Constantinopie,		. 597,000
Benares,		530,000
Кю,		. 520,000
Sou-tcheon,		. 500,000
Houng-tcheou,		500,000

The 40th in the list is Berlin, with 193,000 87,000. Of the hundred cires, 2 contain 1,500,000; 2 upwards of 1,000,000; 9 from 500,000 to 1,000,000; 23 from: 200,000 to 500,000; 56 from 100,000 to 200,000; and 6 from 87,000 to 100,000. 58 are in Asia, and 32 in Europe; of which 4 are in Germany, 4 in France, 5 in Italy, 8 in England, and 3 in Spain. The remaining 10 are divided between Africa and America.

Cities, m a moral point of view. Much las been said, written and preached against the immorality of large cities, and the fact cannot be demed; but immorality is not confined to them. The petty vices of small places, though less glaring. are, perhaps, equally invorious; making up in constant repetition for their comparatively less degree of noxiousness. It is much more difficult, moreover, to preserve one of the most important poseessions, independence of character, m, a small place than in a large one. The cry against the immorality of large cities

and admirable things which mankind have been enabled to perform by means of the collected strength of talents and resources combined in large cities, and their influence in forming the character of great men, who could not have acquired, elsewhere, their variety of accomplishment, and the well-proportioned cultivation of their various faculties. At the same time, we must allow that it is a very injurious policy to strip a whole country of all which illustrates and erinobles it, in order to swell the treasures of the capital. (See Capital.)

Cividan, and Cividan, in geography, the Spanish word for city, from the Latin cirtas, appears in many names of Spanish places; as, Ciudad-de-las-Palmas, or Palmas (capital of the island of Grand Carary).

Cividad-Real, &c.

Ciedad-Rodrigo (anciently, Lancia, or Mirobriga); a fortress in Spain, in Leon, on the inver Aguida; 45 miles S.S. W. Salamanca; lon. 62–33′ W.; lat. 40° 25′ N.; population, 11,000. It is a bishop's see: It was built by Ferdinand II, as a rampart against Portugal, from which it is only about eight miles distant. The fort, containing 6000 men, was somendered to the French under Masseua, July 10. 1840, having been bombaided 25 days; and, Jan. 19, 1812, it was taken by storm by the British, under lad Wellington, after a siege of 11 days. The cortes gave Wellington the title of disks of Ciudad-Rodrig i, and the rank of a grandee of Spain, of the first class.

Civer (reversa, Lan.); a genus of carmyorous mammalerous quadrapeds, natives of the tornd segions of the ancient continent, particularly distinguished by having a secretory apparatus, which forms a powerfully odorous matter, known by the name, of circle. In general appearance, the species of this genus femind one of the fox, which they also resemble in Jiebas; her the tail is long, bairy and cylindrical, and the claws, though by no means so acute as those of the cat, are still partially retractile, or cat-like. The resemblance of the viverra to the feline race is merena d by the pupils of the eyes, which contract. 'in a straight line, and by the color of the skin, which most species have banded or spotted with black upon a deep yellow or dun-colored ground. The tougue, is studded with stout, horny prickles, and the ears are of middling size, straight, and rounded at their tips. The pouch, situated near the genitals, is a deep bag, sometimes divided into two cavines, whence a thick, oily, and strongly musk-like fluid is They are nocturnal, and poured out.

prey upon birds and small animals, and may be considered as forming the transition from the musteline or marten kind to the feline race. The genus has been divided into two sub-genera by naturalists, the first comprising the true circle, those having the pouch large and well marked; the second including the genets, in which there is a simple depression, instead of a pouch. Two species of the first, and eight of the second, are at present known. Their individual pecuharities may be seen, m Desmarest's Mammalogy, p. 205. odoriferous substance which these animals yield, called, from them, circl, when good, • is of a clear yellowish or brown color, and of about the consistence of butter: when undiluted, the smell is powerful and very offensive, but, when largely diluted with oil or other materials, it becomes an agreeable perfume. At a time when perfumewere more fashionable than they are at present, erver was very highly esteemed, being, by many, even preferred to musk. Young ever cats were purchased by the drug dealers of Holland, England, &c., as we are informed by Lemery, and brough: up tame for the sake of the civet, "so that a cat which is large and gentle may come to Be valued at between four and eight pounds sterling." M. Pomet, in his history of drags, relates that he was presented by a friend with a civet-cat, obtained in China in 1683. "Having kept this creature some days. I perceived that the walls and bars that enclosed it were covered with unemous moisture, thick, and very brown, of a very strong and disagreeable smell, so that, during all the time I kept this animal, I took care to gather the civet out of the pouch every other day, not without some trouble and hazard, because it put the creature to some pain or apprehension of it; and, having done so for months, I had about the quantity of an ounce and a half; but it is certain, that, if the necessary care had been taken, and the beast could be hundered from rubbing itself, I might have got a great deal more." The medical virtues once attributed to the civet were numerous and various, but, in course of time, it has been entirely laid aside, even as a perfume; so that, at this time, the words of the dramatist, "Give me an ounce of civet, good apothecary, to sweeter my imagnitation," might be frequently repeated, even in our large cities, with slight probability of obtaining the article.

Civic Crows; among the Romans, the highest military reward, assigned to him who had preserved the life of a citizen. It bore the inscription Ob civem servatum,

was rescued offered it, at the command of his louder, to his preserver, whom he. was bound to honor afterwards as a father. Under the emperors, it was bestowed only by them. Various marks of honor were also connected with it. The person who · received the crown wore it in the theatre, and sat next the senators. When he came in, all the assembly rose up, as a mark of The senate granted to Augustus, as a particular mark of honor, that a civic rown should be placed on the pediment of his house, between two wreaths of laurel, as a sign that he was the constant preserver of his fellow-citizens and the onqueror of his enemies. Similar honors were also granted to Claudius.

CIVIL LAW .- I. The Romans understood by this term mearly the same as, in nodern times, is implied by the phrase positive law, that is, the rules of right They stablished by any government. They contradistinguished it from natural law (jus naturale), by which they meant a ertain natural order, followed by all inving beings (animals even not excepted), iso from the general laws of mankind, established by the agreement of all nations and governments (jus gentium). In this sense, therefore, it embraced the whole system of Roman law, to have private law (ins privatum), which relates to the vario ers legal relations of the different members of the state, the entizens, and the sublic law (jus publicum), that is, the cales respecting the limits, rights, obliganons, &c., of the public authorities.—II. 1s, however, the laws of any state, partic-Jarly such a one as Rome, can rest only er part on positive and special decrees, end must always be developed, in a great seesure, by the customs, and religious and philosophical opinions of the nation, and the decisions of the courts, further astmetions soon grew up. The supreme administration of justice in Rome was in the hands of the pretors; and these officers, on account of the paneity of positive enactnents, a son acquired the power of supplyng their deficiencies. To quote the words of Gibbon- 'The art of respecting the ame and cluding the efficacy of the laws was improved by successive pretors; and where the end was salutary, the means The secret or were frequently abourd. probable wish of the dead was suffered to prevail over the order of succession and the forms of testaments, and the claimant who was excluded from the character of berr, accepted, with equal pleasure, from an indulgent pretor, the possession of

and was made of oak leaves. He who the goods of his late kinsman or benefice ? tor. In the redress of private wrongs, compensations and fines were substituted for iffe obsolete rigor of the twelve tables. time and space were annihilated by fanciful suppositions, and the plea of youth, or fraud, or violence, annulled the obligation or excused the performance of an inconvenient contract. A jurisdiction thus vague and arbitrary was exposed to the most dangerous abuse. But the errors or vices of each pretor expired with his annual office; and such maxims alone as had been approved by reason and practice were copied by succeeding judges." The prefors made an annual declaration, at the commencement of their term of office, of the principles according to which they intended to administer justice (cdictum protoris). This was publicly exposed on a table (album), and uniformity was maintained in the series of pretorian edicts by the legal spirit of the nation. .Under the emperor Adrian, a new publication of the pretorian edict, unalterable from that time (edictum perpetuum), took place, respecting the real extent of which scholars do not agree. The whole body of rules and remedies established by the pretors, whose jurisdiction resembled, in some respects, that of the courts of equaty of England and the U. States, was called jus honorarium, and was opposed to the strict formal law ( jus civile). (See the next paragraph of this article.)—III. The Roman law, in the shape which it assumed after the whole was digested in the 6th century A. D., under the emperor Justinran, was fully and formally admitted as banding in only a small part of Italy; but both here and in the other ancient portions of the empire, it retained great influence, even after the Teutonic tribes had estabhshed new governments in the territories which had been under the dominion of Rome. In the south of France, the collection of imperial decrees and decisions which Theodosius II (A. D. 438) had prepared, remained valid, also, under the Goths. Savigny's History of the Roman Law in the Middle Ages (Heidelberg, 1822) ct seq., 4 vols.) exhibits great research into the subject of the continuance and the revival of this law. After the 11th century, Upper Italy, particularly the school of Bologna, became the point where the body of the Roman law, put together by the emperor Justinian, was formed by degrees into a system applicable to the wants of all nations. This system was introduced into almost all the countries of Europe, because the want of a well-di-

gested body of law was seriously felt. After this model the ecclesiastical and papal decrees were arranged, and, to a considerable degree, the native laws of the . new Teutonic states. From all there the Roman law was distinguished, under the name of civil law. In this respect, therefore, civil law means (ancient) Roman law : it is contradistinguished from canon law (q. v.) and feudal low, though the feudal codes of the Lombards have been received into the corpus juris civilis. (Respecting the present form of the collections of Roman law, see the article Corpus Juris .-IV. As the Roman code exerted the greatest influence on the private law of modern Europe, the expression civil law is also used to embrace all the rules relating to the private rights of citizens. Under the term civil law, therefore, on the continent of Europe, is to be understood, not only he Roman law, but also the modern private law of the various countries: e.g., in Germany, Das gemeine Deutsche Privatrecht: in France, the Code civil des Fran-· cais, or Code Napoleon. In this sense, it is chiefly opposed to criminal law, partieularly in reference to the administration of justice, which is to be divided into an I justice and criminal justice. Having made these few remarks on the name and chaacter of the civil law, we shall now proceed log a more particular account of its istory.

"The history of the Roman law, embracing its gradual development, its final completion under the latter emperors, sarucularly ender Jasuman, and the great effects which it has exerted even down to the present Regord in Europe, is a most interesting and unportant subject. Rome , may be said to have three conquered the world, namely, by its arms, by its laws, and by the decrees promulgated from the papel chair. The dominon of its laws has been the best founded and the most extensive. The Roman laws may be formally abolished, but their influence can never coase. Their effect is as permanent as that of Green art. At the same time, it is not to be demed, that the introduction of the civil law has, in the case of several nations, obstructed the developenient of their own peculiar systems of law, and in the respect, produced evil consequences: but such is the nature of great agents which are beyond the control of human power. An acquaintance with a more perfect language, a more heautiful style of art, and, we might even cay, with a purer religion, has likewise prevented the growth or completion

of many institutions and modes of action. which might have borne noble fruits.—In considering the history of the civil law, as, in fact, of any system of law which has sprung from the wants of the people among whom it grew up, we must take into view the public law and political history of the state, and the growth of its civilization. The commencement of the history of Rome offers little that is original. Its institutions were such as existed m all the neighboring states. Greek views predominated throughout. The royal authority rell in Rome, as it had fallen in all the Greek governments, and the division of the nation into a hereditary body of nobles, and a comparatively powerless community of citizens, gave rise to numerous and lasting struggles. The real character of the internal constitution of Rome will afford, even after the ingenious and deep researches of Niebuhr, in his Roman History, ample opportunity for learned investigation. If manly firmness virtus) constituted the beau ideal of a genume Roman, the same quality was the basis of the Roman laws. These laws did not consider the individual principally in his connexion with others, like the ancient German laws, which give a value to the individual chiefly as a member of a family or a community, but, at an early pewod, treated every one as an independent member of society, the head of a family, fice from the restraints of relationship, or mem's r-hip of corporations. Institutions like those of the Germans, recognising a property common to a family or a corporation, hereditary or entailed, a body of attendants satached to the lord, feudal services, unequal right of inheritance among children, &c., are not to be found in the civit law. The relation between patricans and plebeians, between patrons and clients, was very different from the feudal connexion. The expulsion of the kings was at first of advantage only to the higher classes of citizens (A. U. C. 245), but, only 15 years afterwards (A. U. C. 260), these were obliged to grant to the other cruzens the college of the tribunes and the right of holding deliberative assembles, which opened the way for the great compact of the twelve tables, drawn up by patrician decemvirs (A. U. C. 303, 304), which the ancients considered as establishing equality of rights, though it was not till some years afterwards, that the patricians and plebeians were allowed to conclude valid marriages with each other (lex Canulcia, A. U. C. 309); and not ull a much later period were plebeians

rapable of being elected consuls (A. U. C. 387). An important point of that fundamental law or charter, if we may give it a modern name, was the establishment of such an order of legal procedure, that the poorer class of cutizens, and particularly those living without the city, should not, as had been too often the case, suffer from their causes being hurried through the courts. Another important point was the settlement of the legal independence of the individual. Eighty years after the plebeians had been made capable of being elected to the consulship, the senate was obliged to acknowledge the validity of the \*those which concerned the punishment of people's decrees (plebis-scita), by the lex Hortensia (A. U. C. 468); and, from the first appointment of a protor urbanus . (A. U. C. 367), it was customary, as we have already said, for this officer to give public notice, annually, at the beginning of his term of office, of the principles according to which he intended to decide the cases that should fall within his juridiction. These edicts of the pretors, in which the same rules, with few exceptions, were uniformly adopted, were a better means of keeping the system of laws in a constant state of developement, than special decrees would have been. By this means, there grew up, besides the positive law (jus civile, in the stricter sense of the word), a whole body of acknowledged principles, a common law (jus honorarium), which supplied the chasnis of the positive ordinances, mitigated their , severity, or paved the way for the necessurv reforms. Though the abeients, e. g., Cicero, mention the great accumulation of these positive laws, yet their number, at least as far as respected private right-, appears very small, compared with the laws of modern times. It was only as it regarded the regulation of public relations that there existed in the time of the republic such a mass of laws, that Casar thought it a meritorous work to bring them into a system. But it ought not to be forgotten, that the necessity which existed at that time, of impressing the whole body of decisions on the memory of the lawyer, made the mass become troublesome much somer than it would if there had been collections of laws, abridgments, digests, registers, &c. For the purpose making legislative enactments, there existed in the republic two concurrent authorities—the meeting of the citizens (plebs, under the tribunes, in comities tributis, whose resolutions are called plebisscita), and the senate (whose decrees are called senatus consulta). In the beginning, .19\*

the provinces of the two were so separated, that each one passed decrees only upon its own affairs and relations; but very soon it became necessary to acknowledge mutually a common authority (lex Hortensia, A. U. C. 468). However, as long as Rome remained a republic, the interference of the senate in the enactment of laws was comparatively rare. After the great, internal convulsions had broken out. the conquerors endeavored to establish their authority more firmly, and to gain the favor of the people, by making important reforms in the laws, particularly crimes and political offences, the regulation of legal processes, and some abuses in . the public administration. This was done by Sylla (leges Cornelia, A. U. C. 673), by Cesar (A. U. C. 708—710), but much more by Augustus, in whom, from the year of Rome 723, the power of all the brunches of guarantees and the first process of guarantees. branches of government, and the direction of the senate and of the meetings of citizens were united (leges Julia). To the laws, strictly so called, previously customary (the leges, approved by the citizens), and the decrees of the senate, now were added the special ordinances (constitutiones) of the emperors, besides which the prefors in Rome and in the provinces still retained the right of contributing, by their edicts, to the developement or the legal system. As soon, however, as the monarchical government became settled, the forms of the republic gradually drappeared. In the reign of Tiberus (A. I. C. 767—790, A. D. 14—37), no leges are to be found after the year 777, and, 200 years later, the senatus consulta, also, merged entirely in the imperial decrees, constitutions and rescripts. The annual edicts of the pretors, till then customary, were collected under Adrian (A. U. C. 884, A. D. Bit), by the jurisconsult Salvins Julianu-, into a form which was made unchangoable, called the edictum perpetuum. It is worthy of remark, that though, after Augustus, the most absolute despotism had become established in all public rela-tions, and the penal laws had been made mere instruments of despotism, this very time is the most brilliant period of the scientific development of the civil law. This period begins with Augustus, but the brightest part of it falls under the Antonnes (from 23 B. C. until 180 A. D.) and one or two succeeding emperors. The great names of Caius, Papinian, Ulpian, Paulus, belong to this last period. When the political privileges of the citižen had no guarantee but the good dispo-

sition of the emperors, which often proved a very imperfect security, the laws which regulated the relative rights of individuals, and protected them from mutual wrong, were continually approaching per-This subject deserves a more fection. thorough investigation than it has yet received. All legal relations were expressed with admirable skill and consistency in distanct definitions, and the whole system was developed from a few principles, which run through the whole, and the distinctness and simplicity of which are proved by the adoption of the Roman law among so many different nations. process of development was in so far historical, as it was always connected with an adherence to the old forms, but it was entirely philosophical and rational, as it always strove to find out the real principles of rights and obligations, and to make the formal law dependent upon them. After the age of the Antonines (from 180 A. D.), such a political confusion took place, that the scientific spirit was lost. The judicial system was now continued only by the imperial constitutions, which reated but rarely of private law, while they entered much and often into the subject of public relations. The opinions of the ancient jurisconsults of the better period were regarded almost as legal authorities, and, to remedy the difficulties arising from their different views, it was provided by Valentman III (426 A. D.), that the majority of opinions should decide. The number of the constitutions became such, that collections of them were made, first by private persons (coder Gregorianus et Hermogenianus, about 365 A. D.), then an official one by Theodosius II !codex Theodosianus, 438 A. D.), in 16 looks, of which the 11 last have been preserved entire; of the 5 first, however, only fragments are extant. The latter have been recently discovered at Turm by Peyron, and at Milan by Clossus. (See Hermes (a German periodical), xxv. 314.) There was also an abridgment of this code, made in 506, for the use of the Visigoths (the breviarium Alarkianum). Far the greater part of these decrees relates to the public law. (Jac. Godefror wrote an excellent commentary on this code, which, together with the commentary, was published by Ritter, Leipsic, 1736.) Injurious consequences necessarily resulted from the cessation in the development of the Roman law after the time of the Antonines. It may be seen, from the expressions of Justinian, into what subtil-

lawyers had fallen in his time-a state of things, in some respects, not unlike the present state of law in England, from similar reasons. The public administration, at least as far as regarded its external form, had been reduced into tolerable order since the time of Diocletian and Theodosius II (408-450) Constantine. had conceived the idea of arranging the immense mass of rules and authorities relating to the private law, but the difficulties, on examination, were considered too great, and no sovereign till Justinian (527-565) had the courage to meet them. He first ordered the imperial constitutions, . which still remained in force, to be put into a new collection (codex Justinianus, commenced in 527), and decided, in und after the year 530, 50 legal questions, which had been, till then, left doubtful. At the same time, a systematic abridgment of the writings of the jurisconsults was made by 17 commissioners, embracing 50 books of digests or pandects, and an introduction to the study of jurisprudence was prepared (institutiones): both works were "published" Dec. 30, 533, and invested with legal authority. In the following year, a new collection of imperial decrees (coder repetite protectionis), in 12 books, was published, and from that time another series of single decrees (13 edict- and 159 novella constitutiones), by which the Roman law may be considered as completed, because it was deprived of as capacity of further developement, and left to mankind as a rich but lifeless treas. . ure. The opinsons respecting this work of Justiman are very various. If we consider merely the practical utility of his labors, as regards his age and people, it will not be denied, that he conferred a great benefit on his subjects, and the changes themselves, which were made in the existing regulations, proceeded mostly from a sound view of the higher objects of the law. The aboltion of antiquated and uscless forms, the simplification of legal relations and legal processes, must be acknowledged to have been the principal objects of the changes made; and these changes were executed with judgment If there are decrees of little value among them, these imperfections are not greater than we find in all ancient and modern codes. Justiman has been per-ticularly blamed by modern jurisconsults for combining into one mass, into a kind of code, all the existing works on law, which were acknowledged as authorities. These critics would prefer to have the ties, what verbal and formal niceties, the, writings themselves rather than the ex-

tracts, perhaps, in some cases, perverted from their original meaning. But it is very possible, that, if it had not been for the compilation of Justinian, no part of these writings would have been preserved; and it would seem that a beneficent providence cometimes allows large masses of historical knowledge to perish (as in the case of the Alexandrian collections), in order to compel mankind to revert to the resources of their own minds, and to lead them from knowledge to wisdom. However this may be, the undertaking of Jusunian was demanded by the wants of his age; and it was better to satisfy such a tions and social connexions and new spedemand, even at the expense of some imperfections, than to delay the necessary work under the pretext of educating competent men for the task, and making thorough inquiries; and all must admit the fruit of the labor to have been a treasure of legal wisdom for posterity. Our limits will not allow us to mention here the different editions, abridgments and translations of the work prepared for the Greek provinces (the Western provinces were soon lost foreyer). One Greek edition, of a nuich later date, was ordered by L. Basilius Macedo (867-886), and executed under his successor, Leo the Phitosopher (834-912). This was called libri Basilicarum. Of the 60 books of which it consisted, we possess only a part; though, indeed, the greater part, published by C. Hann. Fabrot (Paris, 1647, 7 vols. fol.). and 4 books, which did not appear in this edition, were published by Reitz, in Meermann's Thesaurus Jur., vol. 1. p. 1.

Thu≰ the Roman law is one original and independent whole, embracing a period of 1300 years to the time of Jushinan, and of 1850 years to that of the Basilica. It stands, in this respect, unique in history. Perhaps China, if, at some future period, we learn more of its history, may afford some institution of similar duration. Even the downfall of the Roman empire has not destroyed the Roman law, but, m some respects, has enlarged its doinmon. It was in force, before the modern governments were established, throughout the Roman empire in Europe, and when the Goths, Franks, Lombards, Burgundians, and other Teutonic tribes, erected new empires, not only a large part of the pubhe law of Rome was incorporated into the new constitutions, but the private law, also, continued to be acknowledged as valid among the old inhabitants. new rulers took care that, besides their different ordinances for the weal of the Germanic tribes, abridgments and modifi-

cations of the Roman law should be made. sometimes, it is true, rude and barbarous enough. Among these were the breviarium Alaricianum of the Visigothe, 506; the lex Romana of the Burgundians, or Papiani Responsa, between 517 and 534. For the Lombards, a rifacciamento of the Roman law was prepared in the 8th and 9th centuries, and thus, in the south of .France and Italy, this law continued in authority uninterruptedly, as far as it was adapted to the new state of things. But this authority, of course, diminished in proportion as new forms of family relacies and tenures of property sprang up, particularly under the feudal system, and in proportion as the internal disturbances in the different states unsettled the idea of law in general. But this idea was awakened again after the states had gained a degree of stability. People began to perceive that there was a nobler and firmer basis of right than mere power; national unioh gamed consistency and true value by means of commerce and industry; the lower classes demanded the extension of their privileges; the increasing activity produced more solid distinctions than those of birth; the insufficiency of the old laws began to be felt, and the ble-sings of a scientific cultivation began to be diffused, borrowed, in a considerable degree, from the Arabians in Spain. In this state of things, men rose, in Upper Italy, in the 11th century, who freed the law-books of Justinian from the obscurity in which they had been buried till then, and by these means gave a new impulse to the science of law. Irrierius, towards the end of the 11th and in the 12th century, is mentioned as the first of them. All the nations on the European continent seized eagerly upon the treasure offered to them, after the model of which were now digested the papal decrees, the feudal law, and, at a later period, the Germanic laws. Thousands of scholars, from all parts of Europe, went to Bologna and other cities of Italy, to study law there. If was generally supposed, at first, that the Roman law was applicable to the whole of Christendom; but it was soon found out that there existed whole systems of laws and legal relations, with which the rules of the civil law world not harmonize; and the peculiarities in the organization of the tribunals of different countries were long an obstacle to the formal adoption of the civil law. This adoption, therefore, did not take place in the various countries at the same time,

non to the same extent. In Italy and the south of France, it was introduced first and most completely; at a later period, and to a less degree, in the north of France (in the pays de droit coutumier), where it has never, in fact, been acknowledged as binding, but only as an authority in regard to general principles of natural law (raison écrite), and still retains this degree of influence, notwithstanding the establishment of the Code civil. In England, it never has been received in the ordinary civil courts (it is, to some extent, in Scotland), but the spiritual courts have always been such cases as fall under the jurisdiction of these courts and a such as relate to last wills. It is also in force in the admiralty courts, but in both with many modifications. In Germany, the idea that the emperors were the successors of the Roman sovereigns contributed much to obain legal authority for the Roman law in that country; and this has been confirmed by several laws of the empire and of the different states composing it. But the native laws have every where prior au-thority, and the Roman law can only be applied in cases, where these make no provision; but all those of its rules which relate to institutions confined to Rome have no force. It is not allowed, moreover, to be applied to cases growing out of modern institutions, such as fiets, primogeniture, bills of exchange, nor in questions belonging to the public law. Many cases, therefore, can happen, in which there may be much doubt whether the Roman law is applicable or not. Prussia and Austria have codes, but in other German states, as in Saxony, there is a great confusion between the Roman and the native law., We have already observed that the effects of the Roman law never would cease, and its influence is perceiva-ble in all the modern codes. We would not be understood as intimating an opar-ion that the Roman law supersedes the necessity of forming new codes. These are desirable in many nations, on many accounts, and, among others, because the Justinian code itself is not without obscurities, and the language in which it is written renders it maccessible to the bulk of the people of every modern state; but degree, upon correctly understanding his rights and obligations. Whether the principles of the Justiman code agree or not with those of the English law, it must be of great advantage to the common lawyer to rtndy a digest which contains the record-

ed wisdom of many centuries, and furnishes abundantly both examples and warnings. We would recommend to the reader an article on civil law in the American Jurist, No. III, July, 1829 (Boston).

CIVIL LIST; an expression which formerly was customary only in England, but at present prevails also in Germany and France. As used in England, it sigmfies the sum which is granted to every king, at the beginning of his reign, for the support of his court and household, of ambassadors, and of the civil government in general. It was once a principle in guided by it. It is therefore in force in England, as in other Teutonic nations, that the monarch was to pay all the expenses of government, even including those of the army, from the possessions of the crown, the domains (in German, Furstenguter), and that the subjects were not obliged to contribute any thing more than they coluntarily engaged to. From this principle, which is proved by the history of the origin of the domains, it appears, that the domains, in general, cannot be considered the private property of the ruling family. On the contrary, they are, m general, the property of the state, and have been given to the prince to defray the expenses of government. The crown lands of the Saxon kings were very considerable. After the Norman conquest, they were much increased by confiscation, but were soon duminished by grants. Under Henry VIII, they were again much increased by the secularization of the convents (there existed, at that time, in England, 27, natred abbots, there were also 2 priories, besides numerous other convents); but the greater part of the possessions of the religious orders was squandered by this prince. Witham III thought it nocessary to strengthen his gayermaent by liberally rewarding his most faithful adherents, for which reason be made grants of the crown lands with such profusion that, under the government of his successor (in 1702), a law was passed, probabiting the ahenation of the domains. There exist, therefore, few crown lands in England, at present, and the income from them goes into the public treasury. Formerly, there were only certain annual contributions granted to the king for the support of the government. Under Charles the welfare of excitizen depends, in a great. II, the amount of the grant was first settled (£1,200,000). Under James 11, this was increased to £1,900,000. The revenue from Scotland was not comprised in this sum. After the revolution of 1008, William's love of war being known and dreaded by his people, no appropriation

he received for defraying the expenses of roi), which the king acquires like any the household, and the branches of the other individual, pays taxes on, and can civil service immediately under the royal dispose of in his last will. If he, howevcontrol, the sum of £700,000, and, at a er, omits to do so, all his private property later period, £800,000. This was called falls to the domaine de l'état. Also, all the the civil list. Under queen Anne, the civil list amounted only to £691,000; under George I, at first, to £750,000, but was increased to £850,000. George II had . maine del'étut.-In Prussia, the official state-£800,000. George III resigned all the hereditary crown taxes and revenues, appropriated to defray the expenses of the civil list, for the sum of £800,000, which, in 1777, was increased to £900,000, and at last, in 1812, to £1,028,000. Besides these grants, the debts of the civil list have been paid several times by parhament. From 1760 to 1784, they amounted to nearly £22,000,000. To the present king, the first session of parliament granted £850,000 for Great Britain, and £207,000 for Ireland. With this sum, the expenses of the household, for which £250,000 are assigned, of the nunisters, the ambassadors, the justices of the high courts, &c., are paid, and £60,000 of it are appropriated for the king's privy purse. The printed for the king's privy purse. The royal princes, besides, receive incomes from the state. The sum allotted to the king himself would seem very small, if he had not, besides, revenues which amount (probably without including the revenue, from Germany, formerly estimated at £100,000) to £300,000.—In France, during the revolution, certain sums were assigned for the support of the king and his family, which civil list differed from the English in so far as all the real expenses of government were separated from it. For the king, according to the law of Nov. 8, 1814, 25,000,000 livres (£1,041,000) were set apart, and for the princes and the prince-see, 8,000,000. To these grants are to be added the toyal palaces in Paris (the Louvre and the Tuileries), the castles and domains at Versulles, Marly, St. Vloud, Meudon, Rambouillet, Commegnes St. German-en-Laye, Fontamebleau, &c., with all the valuables and works of art appertaining to them; likewise the manufactories of Sevres, Gobelins, La Savonuerie and Beauvais, which were declared malienable possessions of the crown (dolation de la couronne). The enjoyment of these estates and manufactories belongs to the monarch, without being subject totaxes or any public burdens, and the administration of them belongs to the nunister of the household. Distinct from the crown domains are the domains of the state (domaine de l'état), and the private

was made him for military expenses, and possessions of the king (domaine prive du private property which the king possessed before his accession to the throne, falls, at the moment of his accession, to the doment of all the revenues and expenses to supply the ordinary wants of the state in 1821, does not mention the civil list. The expenses which fall under this head are defrayed by the domains, since a part of them, amounting to 2,500,000 Prussian dollars, has been added to the property of the crown. But the greater part of the domains, amounting to 5,600,000 Prussian dollars income annually, has been assigned to meet the public expenses. (Bosse, Durstellung des staatswirthschaftlichen Zustandes in den deutschen Bundesstaaten, 1820, p. 505.)—In Bavaria, the domains have been mostly sold and added to the public treasury, which furnishes to the. king and his court 2,745,000 florins annually. The same plan has been followed: in Würtemberg and Baden. In both states, the civil lists, according to the narrower sense in which this phrase is understood in France, amounts to nearly 1.200,000 florins, which, in Würtemberg, is mereased by 200,000 florins meome from the court domains. If we compare these sums with the amount of the finances of the different countries, we find that m

England, about on	e 60th part,
France,	
Prussia,	. 21st,
Bavaria,	. 11th, '
Wantombord and Raden	one half

of the revenue of the country is expended , for the ruling house, and the proportion is still greater in the case of the smaller governments. 'It is worth while to compare these sums with the modest salaries of the American cabinet, and the revenue of the Umon. In some small govern-, ments, the principle of despotism has gone so far as to assign to the court and the ruling family the income of all the domains, and to throw the whole public debt on the country.

Civilization is one of those comprehensive words which are most used and least understood. Most people take their own time, and, very often, their own country, as the standard whereby they judge the civilization of other ages and

other countries. Whether our age has reached a higher point of civilization than any preceding one, is, of course, a matter of very great doubt, but there is no doubt ithat it makes louder claims to superiority in this respect than any previous period. Such pretensions are generally the consequence of ignorance of other times and their productions. It is certainly a circumstance worthy of some consideration, that persons whose talents and acquirements have enabled them to take wide. and penetrating views of the past and present, have shown the least disposition to echo the cry of the march of intellect. The different opinions respecting civilization may be comprised under a few heads: -1. Some people believe in the possibility of constant advancement, and the ultimate attainment of perfect civilization, a consequence of which will be perfect happiness. 2. Others believe that every nation, which arrives at a marked intel-lectual development, goes through certain stages of civilization, and, after reaching the highest point which it is capable of attaining, declines; that, moreover, the march of improvement in different nations shows itself in different ways, c. g., by the progress of the fine arts and philosophy among the Greeks, by the advancement of the natural sciences and the construction of great works of architecture among the Egyptian, by the developement of the law among the Romans, &c. 3. Some believe in a general progress of the intellect to a certain point, after which an equally general decline commences, thus making the race subject to the same laws as the individual. Some persons cannot sincover any regularity in the march of civilization.—However these different opinions may appear, when measured by metaphysical theories, the second seems to be most conformable to history, with this qualification, howev-\* er, that the increasing communication between nations has subjected many to similar influences, so that the opinion is applicable, at present, rather to families of nations than to single ones. Another subject, on which south difference of. opinion exists, as, respecting the place where civilization originated. It is usually said, in Asia: some inquirers, however, make Ethiopia its first seat, in support of which opinion, various passages are cited from the Greek writers. Little doubt seems to exist, that the Greeks received their civilization from Egypt. Mr. Alexander Everett, in his work on Americe, goes so far as to maintain that it ap-

pears, from the historical sources we possess, that civilization commenced with the blacks; that "the blameless Ethiopians" of Homer were considered, by the Greeks, as superior beings to themselves; and that the Egyptians, before they became mingled with white races, were people, of color, or Negroes-an opinion which the learned gentleman has recently advanced again in a public lecture. A further and highly important question respecting civilization, is, How far was it aided or produced by Christianity? Some persons contend that all the civilization which we enjoy is owing to Christianity, even our progress in science, &c. Others assert the contrary, and say that history shows that Christianity has hardly ever taken the lead in promoting civilization, which, in every stage of its progress since the birth of Christ, has been urged on by other causes, as the revival of learning, promoted by the conquest of Constantinople, the propagation of democratic notions by the disbelieving philosophers of France, &c., and that Christianity rather accommodated itself to the effects produced by these causes. A third class believe that Christianity had a great influence on civilization in former ages, but that its influence in this respect has become less, as that of science has become stronger. (See Perfectibility.)

Civita, in geography, the Laun civitas, struncated in the Italian way, appears in many names of cities, as Civita Lavinia.

Civita Vecchia (anciently, Centum Celler); a scapect of the populosa, in the patrimony of St. Peter, 27 miles N. W. Rome; Jon. 11° 45′ E.; lat. 42° 5′ N., population, 7,111. The port was enlarged and rendered commodious by Trajan. It is one of the best in the papal dominions, and next to Ancona in commercial importance. Here are about 6000 galley-slaves. It is the capital of the delegation Civia Vecchia.

CLAIRFAIT. (See Clerfait.)

CLAIRON, Claire-Josephe-Hippolyte-Legris de la Tude; a celebrated French actress. She evinced, when very young, a predilection for the stage, and, adopting the theatrical profession, soon became the first tragic performer of her age and country. Garrick, when he visued Paris, became acquainted with her, and afterwards testified the highest admiration of her talents. She tong remained without a rival, and, having retired from the stage, died at an advanced age, in 1803. She published Mémoires et Réflexions sur la Déclamation Théatrale.

the Highlanders of Scotland, consisted of the common descendants of the same progenitors under the patriarchal control' of a chief, who represented the common The name of the clan was formed of that of the original progenitor with the affix mac (son): thus the Mac-Donalds were the sons of Donald, and every individual of this name was considered a descendant of the founder of the clan, and a brother of every one of its members. The chief exercised his authority by right of primogeniture, as the father of his clan: the clansmen revered and served the chief with the blind devotion of children. The appellation of the chiefs had, generally, a reference to the history of their ancestors, and denoted little more than that they were the descendants of the first father of the clan; thus the chief of the Macdonnells was Mac Allister More (the son of the great Allister). They were distinguished from the rest of the clan by a feather in their bonnets. Each clan was divided into two orders, the tenants or taksmen, the near relations of the chief, to whom portions of land were assigned, during pleasure or on short leases, and whose descendants were generally merged in the second class, or commoners, by the resumption a subdivision o**t t**he clan under him, of which he was chieftam, subject, however, to the general head of the sept. The jurisdiction of the chiefs was not very accurately defined, but, as is generally the case m such a state of society, it was necessary to consult, in some measure, the opinions of the most influential clansmen, and the general wishes of the whole body. The rebellions of 1715 and 1715 induced the English government to break up the connexion which subsisted between the chiefs and the clansmen. The hereditary jurisdiction of the chiefs was, therefore, abol- ished, the people disarmed, and even compelled to relinquish their national dress; and but few traces of this institution now remain. (See Mrs. Grant's Superstitions of the Highlanders.)

CLAP, Thomas, president of Yale college, was born at Scituate, Massachusetts, June 26, 1703. He was graduated at Harvard college in 1722, and afterwards commenced the study of divinity. For his acquisitions in this and in various other branches of knowledge, particularly mathematics, astronomy, natural and moral philosophy, history, the civil and canon . law, he was much distinguished, and pos-

CLAN (Erse, a tribe or family), among sessed, also, a competent knowledge of Greek; Latin and Hebrew. He procecuted his ecclesiastical labors at Windham, Confecticut, from 1726 to 1739, when he succeeded the reverend Elisha Williams in the presidency of Yale college: Hewas an impressive and powerful preacher, and a man of exemplary piety and singular industry. His religious sentiments were in accordance with the Calvinism of the Westminster assembly. He constructed the first orrery or planetarium, made in America, and published a History of Yale College, a Brief History and Vindication of the Doctrines received and established in the Churches of New England, two Sermons, and Conjectures upon the Nature and Motion of Meteors which are above the Atmosphere. He had prepared also materials for a history of Connecticut, but his manuscripts were carried off in the expedition against New Haven " under general Tryon. He died on the 7th. of January, 1767, in the 64th year of his age, having resigned his station as president the year previous.

CLAPPERTON, captain Hugh, the African traveller, was born in Annan, Dumfriesslure, in 1788. After some elementary instruction in practical mathematics, her was bound apprentice, at the age of 13, to class, or commoners, by the resumption the owner of a vessel trading between of the laud. The taksman usually had Javerpool and North America, in which he made several voyages. He was then impressed into his Britannic majesty's service, was soon after made a midshipman, served on the American lakes in 1815, and, in 1816, received the commission of heutenant. Having reared to: Scotland, he became acquainted with doctor Oudney, who was about to embark for Africa, and requested permission to accompany him. Lieutenant (since colonel) Denham having volunteered his sewices, and it being intended that researches should be made, to the east and west, from Bornou, where doctor Oudney was to reside as British consul, his name was added to the expedition by lord Bathurst. In the Recent Discoveries in Africa, made in 1823 and 1824, by Major Denham, Captain Clapperton and Doctor Oudney (London, 1836), we have ac-counts of an excursion from Mourzouk to Ghraat, a town of the Tuaries, by doctor ' Oudney; of a journey across the desert to Bornou, of various expeditions to the southward and eastward, by major Denham; and of an excursion through Soudan to the capital of the Fellatalis, by captain Clapperton. The expedition set out from Mourzouk Nov. 29, 1822, and

Difficult at lake Tchad, in the kingdom of Difficult. Feb. 4, after a journey of 800 miles. Six days after they entered the tantial, Kouka, Clapperton, in company with doctor Oudney, who died on the way, set out on an expedition to Soccatoo, the capital of Houssa, more than 700 miles east of Kouka, which he reached in 90 days. He was not permitted to pursue his journey to the west, and returned to Kouka, and thence to England in 1825. The information which the travellers collected, in regard to the, habits and commerce of the people of Central Africa, was important, as showing the existence in that quarter of a large population of a peaceable disposition, and possessed of a considerable divilization. The geographical information collected was not without its value, although it left undecided the disputed questions of the course and termination of the Niger. They proceeded south from Tripbli (lat. 32° 30') to Musfera (lat. 9° 10'), being 1400 miles in difference of latitude, and from Zangalia, on the east of lake Tchad (lon. 17° E.), to Soccatoo (lon, 6° E.), making a difference of longitude of 660 miles. They thus determined the position of the kingdoms of Mandara, Bornou and Houssa, their extent, and the position of their principal cities. On his return to England, heutenant Clapperton received the rank of captain, and was immediately engaged, by lord Bathurst, for a second expedition, to start from the Bight of Benn. Leaving Badagry, Dec. 7, 1825, he pursued a north-easterly direction, with the intention of reaching Soccatoo and Bornou. Two of his companions, captain Pearce and doctor Morrison, perished, a short time after leaving the coast, and Chapperton pursued his way, accompanied by his faithful servant Lan-der. At Katunga, he was within 30 miles of the Quorra or Niger, but was not permitted to visit it. Continuing his journey north, he reached Kano, and then proceeded westward to Soccatoo, the residence of his old friend Bello Bello refused to allow him to proceed to Sornou, and detained him a long time in his This conduct appears to have arison from the war then existing between Bello and the sheek of Bornou, and to the **intrigues** of the pacha of Tripoli, who had insinuated that the English meditated the conquest of Africa, as they had already conquered India. This disappointment conquered India. preyed upon Clapperton's mind, and he died, April 13, 1827, at Chungary, a village four miles from Soccatoo, of a dysentery. (See Journal of a Second Expedition from

Kano to the Sea-coast, partly by a more eastern Route, London, 1829; Philadelphia, 1839; to which is added the Journal of Richard Lunder (the servant of Clap perton). Clapperton was the first European who traversed the whole of Central "... Africa, from the Bight of Benin to the Mediterranean. We have thus a continuous line from Tripoli to Badagry, which is of great importance from the assistance which it will afford to future researches. Clapperton was a man without education. but intelligent and impartial; of a robust frame and a happy temperament. He was capacle of enduring great bardships. 'His' knowledge of the habits and prejudices of the Central Africans, his frank, hold and cheerful manners, would have rendered him peculiarly useful in promoting. the designs of the British government in that quarter.

W. 18.

CLARE, John (called the peasant of Northamptonshire), a natural poet, born, July 13, 1793, at Helpstone, near Peterborough, in Northamptonshire, England, was obliged, when very young, to main-tain his father, a day-laborer, who had become crippled, and his helpless family. by manual labor. The sufferings of the most abject poverty he has described with heart-rending truth, in his poem, Address to Plenty in Winter. The scanty assistcance which the father received from the parish lightened the burner of supporting the family, and John succeeded in saving money, by means of extra labor, to enable him to learn to read. He now read, by night, Robinson Crusoe, and other books that were lent hun. Thomson's Seasons first excited Clare's poetic talents in his 13ti year, and suggested to him his first poon, the Morning Walk, to which he soon added the Evening Walk. John Turnhill of Helpstone, whose notice this attempt had attracted, now adopted the boy, and taught him writing and anthmetic. Clare made rapid progress, and succeeded, moreover, in acquiring considerable skill on the violin, though he was obliged to devote the whole daylto labor, and had no instruction, except some advice from a village musician. This accomplishment he afterwards used as a means of support. He continued to write. poetry for 13 years, with no other encouragement than the pleasure which he derived from it, and sung of God and the beauties of nature, while he labored with the hoe and spade. In December, 1818, one of his sonnets fell into the hands of Edward Drury, a bookseller at Hamford. The poem was upon the setting pun.

John Clare, a Northamptonshire Peasant (London, 3d edition, 1820), consist of sonnets, songs, ballads and miscellaneous pieces, which describe rural life: they are simple, interesting by their truth and feeling, and full of original images, but somewhat disfigured by provincialisms. A new collection of Clare's poems appeared in 1821, under the title of the Village Minstrel and other Poems, &c., two volumes, with the author's portrait. Clare has acquired some property by his poetic pro-. ductions, but continues warmly attached to his village and situation.

CLARENCE, duke of, William Henry, prince of England, second brother of king George IV, born Aug. 21, 1765, was educated for the navy, and pa-sed through all the ranks, but received no command. In the chamber of peers, he constantly opposed the war policy of the ministers. Humanity is indebted to him for his exertions for the abolition of the slave-trade. His uniting with the opposition contrib-uted to the overthrow of Pat and Addington, but he still lived on the best terms with the royal family. He was passionately attached to the celebrated actress Mrs. Jordan, with whom he was connects ed many years, and had-several children by her. She died at Bordeaux, in 1816. The duke of Clarence conducted Louis XVIII to the coasts of France in 1814. He magried the princess Adelaide of Saxe-Menningen, July 11, 1818, and was desirous of fixing his residence thenceforth at Osnabruck. He lives now with his wife in London. In 1827, under Canning's administration, the duke of Clarence was appointed lord high admiral of England (see damiral); but he retired from that office soon after the duke of Wellington had been made premier.

CLABENDON; a village three mules east of Sahsbury, where Henry II summoned a council of the barons and prelates, in 1164, who enacted the laws called the constitutions of Clarendon, by which the power of the pope in England was checked.

Clarendon, lord high chancellor of England, probably born at Dinton, in Wiltshire, 1608, was educated at Oxford, and afterwards studied law under his uncle Nicholas Hyde, chief justice of the king's bench. He was a member of the long parliament under Charles I; and the pu-20

Encouraged by Drury, Clare prepared rity of his insentions, his attachment to a collection of his poems, which soon the laws of his country, and the talents excited public interest. These Poems, descriptive of Rural Life and Scenery, by out of the civil war, he attached himself to the king's party; became chancellor of the exchequer and member of the privy council, and followed prince Charles (afterwards Charles II) to Jersey. Here he remained for two years, while the prince was in France, and during that time began his History of the Rebellion. He likewise composed at Jersey the various writings which appeared in the king's name, as answers to the manifestoes of the parliament. After Charles I was beheaded, the new king called him to France, and sent him to Madrid, to see if any assistance could be obtained from the Spanish court. From thence he went to Paris to reconcile. the queen mother with the duke of York. and afterwards to the Hague, where Charles II appointed him lord chancellor of England, in 1657. After Cromwell's death, Edward Hyde contributed more than any other man to the happy termination of the measures which placed Charles II on the throne. He subsequently possessed the entire confidence of the king, who loaded him with favors. In 1660, he was elected chancellor of the university of Oxford; in 1061, he was made peer, and baron Hyde, viscount Combary, and earl of Clarendon. Many events occurred to disquest him in the licentious court of, Charles II; among these was the marriage of the duke of York, the king's brother, to his daughter. The duke, while at Breda, the residence of his sister, the princess of Orange, became acquainted with Anne Hyde, Clarendon's eldest daughter, maid of honor to the princess, and married her, Nov., 1659, without the knowledge of the king or the chancellor. Anne's pregnancy occasioned the disclosure of this union after Charles's restorathe validity of the marriage, he acknowledged Anne Hyde as duchess of York, commanded his brother to continue to love her, and, at the same time, declared that this event had not changed his sentiments towards the chan ellor. Two daughters, ecked. Anne and Mary, were the fruit of this Clarendon. Edward Hyde, oarle of a marriage, both of whom ascended the English throne. In 1663, lord Bristol made an attack upon the chancellor in the parliament. This body, however, disregarded his accusations. Attempts were also made to injure him in public opinion. while, on the other hand, his influence with the king was declining, as Charles

VOL. III.

1 ,)

had now less regard for an able minister "than for the instruments of his prodigality. The duke of Buckingham, moreover, was Leontinually laboring to make the chancellor ridiculous in the eyes of the king, and his station as prime minister made the nation regard him as answerable for all the faults of the administration. The ill . success of the war against Holland, the sale of Dunkirk, and other events, excited public indignation. The king's displeasure was changedointo hatred, when he saw his plan of repudiating his wife, and marrying the beautiful lady Stuart, defeated by Clarendon, who effected a marriage between this lady and the duke of Richmond. The king deprived him of his offices, and an impeachment for high treason was commenced against him. Clarendon fled, and sent his apology from Calais to:the house of lords. Both houses ordered this writing to be burnt by the common hangman, and Clarendon was lanished forever. The hatred of the nation pursued him even to the continent. At Evreux, he was attacked by some English sailors, dangerously wounded, and with difficulty rescued from their hands. He hvell six years at Montpelher, Moulusand Ronen, at which latter place he died. Dec., 1074. 'His remains were afterwards carried to England, and buried in West- nunster abbey - Lerd Clarendon, as long as he was minister, was the friend and supporter of the king against the factions, and the defender of his country's freedom against the abuse of the royal power. Ingratitude and prejudice the more easily rumed him, as his stern and proud character prevented his gaining affection. Among his many writings, the most miportant is the History of the Rebellion. from 1641 down to the Restoration of Charles II. It is a vec vable work although not free from prejudices . To this was added, in 1759, his Life and a Continuation of his History.

CLARET. (See Bordelaus B'ines.)

CLARICHORD, OF CLAVICHORD. A keyed instrument, now out of use, somewhat in the form of a spinet, and the strings of which are supported by five bridges. One distinction in the clarichord is that the strings are covered with pieces of cloth, which render the sound sweeter. and, at the same time, deaden it, so as to revent its being heard at any considerable distance. On this account, it was formerly much used by the nuns, who could practise on it without disturbing the dormitory. It is sometimes called the dumb opinet.

CLARIFICATION, or the separation of the insoluble particles that prevent a liquid from being transparent, may be performed by depuration, filtration or coagulation. In the first of these operations, the liquid is permitted to subside, without being in the least disturbed, until all the particles which were in suspension are precipitated; it is then decanted. This mode of clarification can only be used when the substance on which we operate is in a large quantity, 'or is of a nature not to be altered during the time necessary to complete this operation, and finally when its specific gravity is less than that of the particles which render it turbid. Filtration is a process by which a liquid is strained through a body, the interstices of which are small enough to stop the solid particles contained in it. Filters of wool, linen, paper, powdered glass, sand or charcoal, may be used, according as the liquid is more or less dense, or of a nature to operate upon any one of these bothes. Finally, clarification by coagulation is performed with the assistance of albumen contained in the liquid, or some is added to it for this purpose, which, by the action of calone, of acids, & c. becomes solid, forms a mass, and precipitates the extraneous substances, The white of eggs is generally used for the purpose.

A wind instrument of the CLARINET. Acd kind, the scale of which, though a includes every senutone within its extremes, is virtually defective. Its lowest note is E below the I' cliff, from which it. is capable, in the hands of good performers, of ascending more than three betaves. Its powers, through this compass, are not every where equal; the player, therefore, has not a free choice in his keys, being generally confined to those of C and F. which, indeed, are the only keys in which the clarmet is heard to advantage. The music for this instrument is therefore usually written in those keys. There are, however, B flat clarinets, A clarinets, D claimets, B clarmets, and G clarmets: the three latter are scarcely ever used in England.

CLARK, John; an industrious critic and classical commentator, who published many useful works on education. He was the master of a grammar-school at Hull, in Yorkshire, where he died in May, 17:34. Among his publications are an Introduction to making Latin, and editions of several Latin authors, with English translations.

CLARKE, Edward Daniel, LL. D.; a celebrated traveller of our own times, pro-

fessor of mineralogy at Cambridge, which university he enriched with the fruits of his researches in foreign countries. was the second son of the reverend Edward Clarke, author of Letters on the Spanish Nation, and various minor works, and was born in 1767. He received his education at Jesus college, Cambridge, of which society he became a fellow, having taken the degree of A. M. in 1794. Soon atier, he accompanied lord Berwick to haly, and, in 1790, set out with Mr. Cupps, on an extensive and laborious tour through Denmark, Sweden, Lapland, Fin-·land, Russia, Tartary, Circassia, Asia Minor, Syria, Palestine, Egypt, Greece, and Tur-key, returning, in 1802, through Germany and France. On his return, he obtained, from the university to which he belonged, the honorary degree of LL. D., as a distinguished mark of its approbation, and, in consideration of the services rendered to its public libraries and institutions by his liberal contributions, among which the greatest, perhaps, in value, is the celebrated manuscript of Plato's works, with nearly 100 others, and a colossal statue of the Eleusinian Ceres. To him also the British nation is indebted for the acquisition of the famous sarcophagus of Alexander the Great, which he discovered in the possession of the French troops in Egypt, and was the means of its being surrendered to the English army. In 1806, he commenced a course of lectures on mineralogy, having brought a splendid collection of specimens to Europe; and, in 1808, a professorship being founded purposely for the encouragement of that branch of knowledge, he was elevated to the chair. A valuable collection of plants and medals proved, also, at once the correctness of his taste and the extent of his industry: while a curious model of mount Vesuvius, constructed by him, with the assistance of an Italian artist, from the materials of the mountain it represents, attests his great ingenuity. This piece of art is now in the possession of lord Ber-wick. Doctor Clarke published Testimo-ny of different Authors respecting the colossal Statue of Ceres, placed in the Vestibule of the Public Library at Cambridge, with an account of its removal from Eleusis (8vo., 1801-1803); The Tomb of Alexander, a Dissertation on the Sarcophagus brought from Alexandria, and now in the British Museum (4to., 1805); A Description of the Greek Marbles brought from the Shores of the Euxine, Archipelago and Mediterranean, and deposited in the Vestibule of the Uni-

versity Library, Cambridge (Svo., 1809); Travels in various Countries of Europe, Asia and Africa, Part I, containing Russia, Tartary and Turkey (4to., 1810); Part II, containing Greece, Egypt and the Holy Land (Section 1st, 4to., 1812; Section 2d, 1814); and some other works. Doctor Clarke died March 9, 1821. After his death, a volume was published, containing his Travels through Denmark, Sweden, Lapland, Norway, Finland and Russia (London, 1823, 4to.). A complete edition of his works appeared, in 11 volumes, in 4to. and 8vo. (London, 1819—84), under the title of Travels in various Countries of Europe, Asia and Africa.

Countries of Europe, Asia and Africa.

CLARKE, Samuel, DD., a celebrated theological and philosophical writer, was born at Norwich, England, in the year 1675, of which city his father was an alderman. He was educated at Caius college, Cambridge. Whilst at the university, he diligently cultivated a knowledge of the Scriptures, in the original languages, and, before the age of 21, had largely contributed to diffuse the Newtoman system. Being of opinion that the vehicle of an established work, like that of Rohault, would be most convenient for the gradual introduction of true philosophy, he translated that author's Physics for the use of young students, whom he thereby familiarized with the language and reasonings of Newton. On entering into orders, he became chaplain to Moore, bishop of Norwich, and first became an author in his own profession in 1699, when he published Three practical Essays upon Baptism, Confirmation and Repentance. This work was followed by Reflections on a Book called Amyntor, by Toland, relating to the authenticity of writings not received into the canon of Scripture. In 1701, he published his Buraphrase on the Four Gospels, and, about the same time, received two small livings in and near Norwich. In 1704, he was appointed to preach the sermon at Boyle's lecture, when he chose for his subject the Being and Attributes of God. and gave so much satisfaction that he was appointed to the same office the next year, when he delivered a course of sermons on Evidences of Natural and Revealed These sermons exceedingly Religion. raised the author's reputation as a close and acute reasoner, although his argument a priori, for the existence of a God, was, by Pope and others, deemed too subtle and metaphysical. He, however, employed it only in opposition to Hobbes, Spinoza, and similar reasoners, who could,

published A Letter to Mr. Dodwell, on the Immortality of the Soul, and, during the same year, gave an elegant Latin vertion of sir Isnac Newton's Optics, for which that great man presented him with £500. His friend, bishop Moore, now introduced him to queen Anne, who appointed him her chapkin, and presented him with the rectory of St. James's, Westminster, the On highest preferment he ever obtained. this occasion, he took his degree as D. D. In 1712, he appeared as a philologist, by editing a fine edition of Casar's Commentaries, which he dedicated to the great duke of Marlborough, and, in the same year, published a work which mvolved him in endless controversy, entitled The Scripture Doctrine of the Trimty. In this production, that mysterious tenet is, on crincal principles, examined as deducible from the words of Scripture; and the result of the author's reasonings was so different from the opinion of the church of England, that it became a subject of complaint in the lower house of convocation. Several controversial pieces were written on this occasion, the chief champion of orthodoxy being doctor Waterland. In 1715 and 1716, a disputation was carried on between doctor Clarke and the celebrated Leibnitz, concerning the principles of natural philosophy and religion, the papers of which were collected and addressed to the princess of Wales, atterwards queen Caroline. In 1717, he published Remarks upon Collins's Luquiry concerning Human Liberty, and, soon after, gave much offence by altering the doxology of the enging pedins at St. James's; on which occasion the bishop of London sent a circular to the clergy forbidding the use of them. In 1724, he published a volunt consisting of 17 sermons, and, on the death of sir Isaac Newton, in 1727, was offered the place of master of the mint. This office he declined accepting, as inconsistent with his profession, preferment in which had, however, now become hopeless. In 1728, he wrote a letter to Mr. Hoadley, On the Proportion of Velocity and Force m Bodies in Mouon, and, the next year, published the first 12 books of Homer's lliad, with a Latin version, the remaining books of which were published by his son in 1732. Doctor Clarke's reputation as a classical scholar is chiefly founded on this performance, which is held in high esteem. He had all his life enjoyed sound health; but, on Sunday, May 11, 1729, when going to preach before the

be no other way opposed. In 1706, he judges at Serjeants' Inn, he was seized with a pleuritic complaint, which carried him off, after a few days' illness, in his 54th year. He left in mainiscript, prepared for the press, An Exposition of the Catechism, which was published by his brother, with 10 posthumous volumes of, sermons. The private character of doctor Clarke was extremely annable, being upright, mild and unaffected. His intellect-.ual emmence was founded on a strong cultivation of the reasoning faculty, with out passion or enthusiasm. He closely pursued his object, with methodical accuracy and logical acuteness, aided by a . strongly retentive memory and indefatigable attention.

CLARKE, George Rogers, colonel in the service of Virginia against the Indians in the revolutionary war, distinguished himself greatly in that post, and, for some time, was the protector of the people of the frontiers of Virginia and Pennsylvania from the inroads of the savages. In 1778, he was appointed to command a regiment of infaniry, and one troop of cavalry, raised for the defence of the country of Illmois, in which was comprehended the country claimed by Virginia that had been conquered by colonel Clarke. The famihes which came with him to the falls of the Oluo were the first settlers at that place. At nrst, their situation was very dangerous, in consequence of the proximity of several tribes of Indians, and some British posts; but, by the exertions of Clarke, it was soon rendered secure, and, in 1779, they were enabled to remove into Kentucky, where emigrants quickly flocked in great numbers. In the same year, colonel Clarke descended the Ohio, and built fort Jefferson, on the eastern bank of the Mississippi, and, in 1781, received a general's commission.—The following ancedote is related of Clarke, in a work published not very long since, called Notes of an Old Officer : \_ "The Indians came in to the treaty at fort Washington in the most friendly manner, except the Shawahanees, the most conceited and warlike of the aborigmes, the first in at a buttle, the last at a treaty. 300 of their finest warriors set off in all their paint and feather, and tiled into the council-house. Then number and demeanor, so unusual at an occasion of this sort, was altogether unexpected and suspicious. The United States' stockade innstored 70 men. In the centre of the hall, at a little table, sat the commissary-general Clarke, the indefatigable scourge of these very marauders, general Richard Butler and Mr. Parsons.

There was also present a captain Denny. who, I believe, is still alive, and can attest this story. On the part of the Indians, an old council-sachem and a war-chief took the lead. The latter, a tall, raw-boned fellow, with an impudent and villanous look, made a boisterous and threatening speech, which operated effectually on the passions of the Indians, who set up a prodigious whoop at every pause. He con-cluded by presenting a black and white wampum, to signify they were pre-pared for either event, peace or war. Clarke exhibited the same unaltered and •careless countenance he had shown during the whole scene, his head leaning on his left hand, and his elbow resting on the table. He raised his little cane, and pushed the sacred wampum off the table, with very little ceremony. Every Indian, at the same time, started from his seat with one of those sudden, simultaneous, and peculiarly savage sounds, which startle and disconcert the stoutest heart, and can neither be described nor forgotten. At this juncture, Clarke rose. The scrutmizing eye cowered at his glance. He stamped his foot on the prostrate and insuited symbol, and ordered them to leave the hall. They did so, apparently invol-They were heard all that night, debating in the bushes near the fort. The raw-boned chief was for war, the oldsachem for peace. The latter prevailed, and the next morning they came back and sued for peace."—General Clarke died on the 13th of February, 1817, in the with year of his age, at his seat near Louisville, Kentucky.

CLASSIC (from the Latin classis). The Roman people were divided thto six classes, and classici was the name given to the enizens belonging to the first class. From this circumstance, the Greek and Roman authors have been, in modern times, called *classics*, that is, the excellent, the models. There is, of course, a great diversity of value among them: but their enperiority to the writers of modern Enrope, at the time of the revival of letters, was so great, that it was very natural for their athmrers to give them, collectively, the name of classics. The Germans soon gave the word klassisch (classical) a wider sense, applying it more philosophically, and making it embrace, 1, the standard works of any nation, and, 2. ancient literature and art, in contradistinction to the modern or romantic. The English and French have followed this example, though but recently. The Dictionnaire de l'Académie

classique than Auteur classique, c'est-à-dire un auteur ancien, approuvé, et qui sait autorité dans une certaine matière: Platon. Hontere, Démosthène, Cicéron, Virgile, Tito-Live. &c. sont des auteurs classiques.

As regards classical, by which we mean, in this place, ancient, literature, we observe a striking difference between it and modern literature. The Greek authors were the pupils of nature and an active, energetic life. These furnished their discipline rather than the pedantic forms of schools, which are impressed with painful labor upon the memory, and only half . understood. They had, besides, a very keen sensibility for beauty, which was fully devéloped by the loveliness of surrounding nature, and by their active life, . in which all their faculties were unfolded. They spent their lives in constant contests for liberty, and for superiority in physical or mental accomplishments. Every thing was public; every thing stimulated emulation. Nature and Liberty are the genii which presided over the labors of the Greeks; and their works are classical, that is, models, as far as they are the natural fruit of the circumstances in which they were placed. The suc-cesses of the Greeks over the slaves of Asia, and the overthrow of their own tyrunts, first produced poets among them; and these continued, in an uninterrupted series, exerting a decisive influence upon thetoric, history and the plastic arts, and receiving, in their turn, a corresponding influence, until degeneracy, over-refinement and political subjugation took the place of nature and liberty. The Macedoman and Roman dominion fixed the lunts of Greek classical literature. From that time, Greece produced only learned inquirers and rich treasures of knowledge, but no works distinguished as models, such as had been composed in the time of her freedom, under the joint influence of her political constitution, religion, beautiful climate, and language, which contained the elements of the highest perfection in a far greater degree than most other languages.—The Romans, from their pohtical constitution and national character, have become models only in history and thetoric, and works on war, architecture and law. The most active element in their national character was always the military and legal spirit. But their language acquired, from the habits of the nation, such conciseness and precision, that they remain models in history, and, in fact, in every branch of composition, as far as congives no other definition to the word cise expression is concerned, so difficult

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and so valuable an attainment. The rapid growth of their power outstripped the development of their literature, which attained its meridian soon after the everthrow of liberty and the establishment of despotism. Hence it speedily degenerated, and the time soon arrived when Roman literature consisted, in a great measure, of descriptions of the universal corruption and misery of the people, characterized either by a morose bitterness or by the complacency of deep-seated immorality.-The style of the ancient writers is very characteristic, and forms a striking distinction between thems and the mode erns. Their language is generally simple. natural, pure, and therefore expressive: whilst the modern writers, by reason of their greater erndition, and the refine-, ments of our social life, are constantly tempted to sacrifice energy and conciseness to brilliancy and richness of illustration; so much so, that Rousseau was led into the paradox of declaring himself an enemy to all wit. Besides the style of the ancient writers, so many circumstances contributed to the excellence of their productions; the union of knowledge and ignorance, of rudeness and refinement, was fitted to exercise so beneficial an influence upon them, that the best works of the Greeks and Romans have secured to themselves a permanent place among the means of intellectual cultivation, throughout Europe and the nations of European descent. It has often been said, that the knowledge of the languages and literature of Greece and Rome can be of little value to us, as their condition and character, their principles, political ' and religious, were so different from ours. But, without mentioning the advantages to be derived from a knowledge of these languages by men Cevoted to certain particular pursuits, we do not hesitate to affirm, that the highest degree of intellectual accomplishment is not possible without classical attainments. We ought to be thankful that we are permitted to avail ourselves of the literary treasures of these glorious nations, without being obliged to participate in the sufferings and struggles which contributed so essentially to their richness and beauty. The very study of their languages has a most salutary influence on the intellectual development of the students of modern times, whose na-tive languages are of a much less philosophical construction. If it were necessary to bring forward examples, it would . be easy to show, not only that most of the men of modern times, distinguished in

the various branches of moral and polincal science, have had a classical education, but also that this education has exerted a most important influence on their minds. The beneficial effect of classical literature on the character of nations might also be easily shown. Undoubtedly a wrongly directed classical education has, in some instances, produced injurious consequences. So, too, has misdirected religious instruction; but the one is no more an argument against classical literature than the other is against religion.— We shall not, in this place, enter upon a statement of the characteristic differences. of agrient and modern literature, as the subject has not been sufficiently discussed by English writers to give that precision to the requisite phraseology which would be necessary to make a condensed view of the subject intelligible. We will only remark, that the religion of the Greeksto use the words of the celebrated Augustus William Schlegel-was the apotheosis of the powers of nature and of terrestrial life. Every thing, therefore, was positive, clear and fine-hed in their religion and religious views. Fuch is also the predominating character of their literature. Modern interature, on the other hand, is marked with the character of the Christian religion, which directs the mind to the mysterions and the jntuite. The Greek philosophy, moreover, sought for happiness in mental tranquility and the well-balanced and harmomous action of the different faculties. The Christian encourages a struggle between the Jugher and lower powers of our nature. The influence of the Christian principle on modern writers is not, indeed, universal. Some productions of modern times are characterized by the Greeian element rather than the romante, or, as it might properly be called, the Tevtonico-Christian, for instance, some of the poems of Gothe. This cannot be said of Byron, notwithstanding the anti-Christian character of much which he has written. We will conclude our remarks respecting the difference between ancient and modern writer by another remark of Schlegel. He says that the germs of the ancient poets was of a plastic character; that their creations resembled those of the sculptor. Sculpture directs our attention exclusively to a particular object; it detaches the statue from all surrounding objects, or indicates them, if at all, very slightly. is the character of the creations of the ancient dramatists, whilst the genius of the modern drama has much more resemblance to that which fills a picture with a

great variety of objects, operating, it is of Tiraboschi, Ginguiche, Sismondi and having also much individuality of character.

The same difference which exists between ancient and modern or classical and romantic literature, prevails, to a great degree, between ancient and modern art. We may remark in general, respecting classical art, by which we mean especially Greek art (the Romans having always remained, in a great measure, unitators of the Greeks), that its productions are complete in themselves, expressing, in their · beautiful forms, all which the artist intended to convey, while the genius of modern art is characterized by aiming at something infinite, beyond the power of precise conception and perfect representation. For this reason, the Greeks devoted themselves to sculpture more than to painting, and even gave to their productions in the latter branch of art something of a plastic character, whilst the moderns have directed their attention much more to painting, and have given to sculpture a character different from that which it had among the ancients. The same difference of feeling is apparent in the architecture of the two periods, and the music of modern times owes its excellence to causes similar to those which have carried painting to such perfection.

As regards the classical writers of any country, meaning, by this term, the standard writers in the different departments of literature, it would be difficult to give a precise definition of what entitles an author to the epithet classical; yet we find the judgment of nations (allowance being made for the peculiar tastes of each) pretty uniform and pretty correct. Still, however, there are considerable diversities of opinion as to the writers who are to be ranked as classies, in nations among whom the overwhelming authority of some great learned body has not determined who are entitled to this designation. We might instance the Germans, and even the French, as far as respects the writers who have appeared since the publication of the Dietionnaire de l'Académie.—Much information is contained on the French classics in La Harpe's Cours de Litterature Française, and in that of Levizac (Paris, 1807, 4 vols.); also in Bouterwek's extensive Geschichte der Poesie und Beredtsamkeit. For the English classics, Johnson and Warton are to be consulted. Bouterwek's work, also, is full of valuable information on this subject. The Italian classics are to be learned from the works

true, to produce a common effect, but Bouterwek. An account of the best suthors of Spanish literature is to be found in Velasquez and Nicolas Amonio, Bibliotheca Vetus et Nova, in Sismondi's Literature du Midi de l'Europe, and in Bouterwek's work, of which the part relating to Spain has been lately translated into . Spanish, under the following title: Historia de la Literatura Española, escrita en Aleman por F. Bouterwek, traducida d' Castellano y adicionada por D. José Gonez de la Cortina y D. Nicolás Hugalde y Mollinedo (Madrid, 1829, 8vo. vol. i, pp. 276). Italf of vol. i. consists of additions by the translators, which, however, do not add much to the value of the work. For Portuguese literature, Bouterwek, Sismondi, and, chiefly, don Barbosa Machado's Bibliotheca Lusitana (Lisbon, 1731, 4 vols. fol.), are to be recommended. The works of Ideler and Nolte, Handbücher, for French, Italian, Spanish and English interature, are highly valuable, containing judicious selections from the best prose writers and poets in these literatures, with short accounts of each author from whom extracts are made. These gentlemen are distinguished literati at Berlin, of whom the former is likewise known as one of the greatest chronologists of the age, and by his Arabian chrestomathy. For German literature, Ersch's Handbuch der Detitschen Literatur (new colmon, 1822 et seq., 4 vols.) is to be consulted. For further information respecting the literature of different countries, see the articles, on these countries respectively. Augustus William Schlegel's works must be considered as still unrivalled for profound and original criticism on the art and literature of the ancient and modern nations.

Claude Lorraine, so called, was one of the most distinguished landscape painters. His real name was Claude Galie: he was called Lorraine from the province of this pame, where he was born in the castle of Champagne, of poor parents, whom he lost early. His education was much neglected. When 12 years old, he went to live with his brother, an engraver in wood at Friburg. Afterwards, a relation of his took him to Rome, where he was employed by the landscape painter Agostino Tassi, as a color-grinder and a kitchen-boy. Here he received a little instruction in painting, having previously acquired some skill in drawing from his brother. The sight of some paintings. of Godfrey Vals enchanted him so much, that, in spite of his poverty, he travelled to Naples to study with the artist. His

pidity, that he was soon considered one. mer. of the first landscape-painters of his time; particularly after he had studied, in Lom-bardy, the paintings of Giorgione and Titian, whereby his coloring and chiaro scure were greatly improved. After making a journey into his native country, he settled, in 1627, in Rome, where his works were greatly sought for, so that he was enabled to live much at his ease, until 1682, when he died of the gout. The principal galleries of Italy, France, England, Span and Germany are adorned with his productions. His best work, and, the one on which he himself set the greatest value, is the painting of a small wood belonging to the villa Madama (in Rome). Clement XI offered to purchase it for as many pieces of gold as would cover its surface; but the artist would not part with it, since he used it as a study. Claude possessed the greatest power of invention, by which he gave an inexhaustible variety to his paintings, united with an ardent and persevering study of nature. The truth with which he portrays the effect of the sun in every part of the day, soft breezes playing through the tops of the trees, and all the delicate beauties of nature, is surprising; and no artist but Caspar Dughet comes near him in this particular. But all his rivals fell far short of equaling the dewy humbity which he threw over dark, shadowy places. His figures are poor, and he used to say—"I sell my landscapes, and give my figures, into the bargain." In a great part of his paintings, the figures are the work of Lauri and Francesco Allegrini. Claude most frequently chooses agreeable views without fixed limits, in which the eye loses itself. He often introduces grand architectural structures, and makes his landscapes the scenes of mythological and historical events. As other artists frequently gave his name to their owr pro-ductions, he made drawings of all his paintings, and called the books in which they were contained Libri di verita. Such a collection, contaming 200 drawings, the-'longs to the duke of Devoushire: another, of 130 drawings, to lord Holland.

CLAUDIANUS (Claudius), a Latin poet, a native of Alexandria, lived under the emperor Theodosius and his sons, and was an experienced warrior, as well as a writer of merit. His poems gained hun such renown, that, at the desire of the senate, the emperors Arcadius and Honorius erected a statue to his honor in the forum of Trajan, with the inscription, that he

genius now unfolded itself with such ra- combined the genius of Virgil and of Ho-Besides several panegyrical poems on Honorius, Stilicho, and others, we possess two of his epic poems, the Rape of Proscrpine, and an unfinished Gigantomachia, eclogues, epigrams and occasional poons. He exhibits a brilliant fancy, rich coloring, great variety and precision in his descriptions, but he is often deficient in taste and gracefulness of thought. The best editions of his works are those of Gessner, Lepsic, 1759, and of Burmann, Amsterdam, 1760, 4to.

CLAUDIUS (Tiberius) Drusus Cæsar, a Roman emperor, the youngest son of the . elder Claudius Drusus Nero and Antonia the younger, the daughter of Augustus's sister, born at Lyons, grew up without any education, for the most part among slaves and women, and was an object of ridicule and scorn at court. He hyed as an unimportant private man, and occupied himself with hterature. Among other works, he wrote a Roman history, embracing the period from the death of Casar to his own time, in 43 volumes, and also his own life. After the murder of Caligula, the body-guard, who were ransacking the palace, discovered him secreted in a corner, dragged him out, and proclaimed him emperor (41 A. D.). senate, who had determined on the restoration of the republic, were forced to contirm the appointment. Claudais, suddenly transferred from retirement and oppression to uncontrolled power, distinguished the beginning of his reign by some praiseworthy acts r he recalled the exiles, and restored their estates to them; embelished Rome, and creeted several large buildings for the public good. He made Mauritania a Roman province; his armies fought, successfully against the Germans, and kept possession of several strong places in Britain. But he soon sunk into debauchery and voluptuousness; and his wives, particularly the infamous Messalina (q. v.), together with his freedmen, admini-tered the government, sold offices and places of honor, and committed the greatest atrocmes unpumshed. He died of poison administered by his second wife, Agripping (mother of Nero), at the age of 63, A. D. 54. His deification was the cause of Seneca's pasquinade entitled Apokolokynthosis.

CLAUDIUS, Matthias (called *Asmus*, or the Wandsbeck Messenger), a German poet, whose prose and poetry bear a peculiar stamp of humor, frankness and cordiality, was born, in 1741, at Reinfeld, in Holstein, near Lübeck. In 1775, he made a

collection of his compositions which had appeared in the Wandsbeck Messenger. and other periodicals, with the addition of some which had not been printed, and gave the collection the title Asmus omnia sua secum portans, or Complete Works of the Wandsbeck Messenger (complete till 1812, in 8 vols.). He wrote on a great a popular character. They are written in a natural, intelligible, and often humorous style, and support the cause of good morals, benevolence, patriotism and piety, while they attack folly and vice with the weapons of ridicule and scorn. Many of his songs have been set to music by the first composers, and have become a part of the national melodies. In the latter part of his life, he became a convert to religious mysticism, and died at Hamburg, Jan. 21, 1815, after having filled several public offices.

CLAUSENBURG, OF COLOSVAR; a town in Transylvama, capital of the Land of the Hungarians and of a county of the same name, on the Samos; 145 miles N. N. E. Belgrade, 225 E. S. E. Vienna; lon. 23° 35' E.; lat. 46° 44' N.; population, 18,210; number of houses, 1200. It became the seat of government of Transylvania about 1790. It is situated in a romantic valley, surrounded on all sides by lofty mountains, and has a handsome public square, several elegant streets, fine gardens, and public walks. It contains 5 Catholic churches, 2 Calvinist, 1 Lutheran, 1 Umtarian, 2 hospitals, a Catholic college containing, in 1814, 232 students; a Reformed college with 636 students; and a Unitarian college with 206 students.

CLAUSEWITZ, Charles von, Prussian major-general, director of the general military school at Berlin, born, June 1, 1780, at Burg, entered the military service in 1792, and took part in the campaigns of 1793 and 1794. He was also active in the war, against Napoleon, in the service of Russia and Prussia, and has distinguished himself by his Uebersicht des Feldzugs von 1813 (Survey of the Campaign of 1813).

CLAVICHORD. (See Clarichord.)
CLAVICIMBALUM; the name originally

given to the harpsichord:

CLAVI-CYLINDER. (See Chladni.)
CLAVIGERO, Francesco Saverio; a Spanish historian, who was a native of Vera Cruz, in Mexico. He was educated as an ecclesiastic, and resided nearly 40 years in the provinces of New Spain, where he acquired the languages of the Mexicans, and other indigenous nations, collected many of their traditions, and studied their

collection of his compositions which had appeared in the Wandsbeck Messenger, and other periodicals, with the addition of some which had not been printed, and gave the collection the title Asmus omnia sua secum portans, or Complete Works of the Wandsbeck Messenger (complete till 1812, in 8 vols.). He wrote on a great variety of subjects. All his works are of a popular character. They are written in a natural, intelligible, and often humorous

CLAVIJO T FLAXARDO, don Joseph; a Spaniard, who fell a sacrifice to a quarrel with Beaumarchais. He lived in Madrid, where he had the reputation of an intelligent scholar, and had published a journal, El Pensddor, and other useful works, when his connexion with the sister of Beaumarchais, whom he had loved, and then forsaken, gave rise to an affair of honor between him and the brother of the lady, who was formidable for talent rather than courage. This affair nearly occasioned Clavijo the loss of his life, and deprived him of his office and the good opmon of his fellow-citizens. He passed the remainder of his life under a kind of , dishonor which the representations of his adversary had brought upon hun. For more than 20 years, he superintended the publication of the Mercurio Historico y Politico de Madrid, with which he had been intrusted as early as 1773. He like-wise translated Buffon's Natural History into Spanish (Madrid, 1785-90, 12 vols.). He was vice-director of the cabinet of natural history, and director of the Theatre de los Sitios, when he died in 1806. Far from resembling the detestable portrait which Beaumarchais draws of him, Clavijo was of a mild disposition, upright character, and a clear understanding. Göthe founded his tragedy Clavigo on Beaumarchais's story.

• CLAVIS (Latin for key) is often used for a drawing, an index, & c., which serves as a guide to the understanding of another work; for instance, clavis Ciceronia, clavis Homerica; & c.

CLAY is a mixture of decomposed minerals, and hence it is by no means uniform in its composition. Several varieties soften in water, and allow themselves to be kneaded and formed into moulds—a property by which they are fitted for the use so commonly made of them. Some are easily fusible, others refractory; some acquire particular tints, others lose their color and become white when exposed to a strong heat; upon all of which properties their applicability depends. They occur in beds near the surface of the

earth, or, covered by the soil, in the form-ations of brown and black coal. In the her lover latter situation, they often contain remains of vegetables, and are called slate tlay, which is intimately related to bituminous Alumine is the shale and alum-curth. basis of all clays, and imparts to them their predominating characters. It is father to the war against the emperor mixed with very variable proportions of Maximilian. In the battle of Guigenaste, silex, magnesia, lime, and oxide of iron. The varieties of clay are of various important applications in pottery, in manufacturing stone-ware and porcelum, in constructing furnaces for metallurgic operations, &c .- Some of the principal varieties are indurated clay, or clay stone, which is clay in its highest state of induration. It is soft, but not easily diffused in water, and does not form with it a ductile paste.-Porcelain clay, so named from the use to which it is applied, is white, with occasional shades of yellow and gray. It is dull and opaque; feels soft; in water, it falls to powder, and, when kneaded, it forms a ductile paste. It is, in general, infusible by any heat that can be raised. It consists essentially of silex and alunune; that of Cornwall contains 60 parts of alumine with 20 of silex.—Potter's clay and pipe clay are similar, but less pure, generally of a yellowish or grayish color, from the presence of iron.-Loam is the same substance mixed with sand, oxide of iron, and various other foreign ingredients.—The boles, which are of a red or vellow color, are of a similar composition, and appear to owe their colors to oxide of from. They are distinguished by their conchoidal fracture.—The others are similar to the boles, containing only more oxide of iron.-Fuller's earth has an earthy fracture, sometimes slaty, is dull and opaque. In water, it falls to powder, without forming a ductile paste. It is used to remove grease from cloth.—Tripoliss found loose or indurated; its fracture is earthy; it feels harsh and dry; does not adhere to the tongue. It is used for pol-ishing the metals and glass.—The clays are too generally distributed to require the enumeration of their localities.

CLEMENCE ISAURE, daughter of Ludovice Issure, born in 1464, near Toulouse, lost her brave father when she was only five years old. She was educated in solftude, and grew up, endowed by nature with beauty and talents. Near to her garden dwelt a young troubadour, named Ruoul, who became enamored of her, and communicated his passion in songs, in which her name and his were united. The maiden replied, not with words, but

Vous avez inspire mes vers, Qu'une fleur son ma récompense-

and Raoul could well interpret their meaning. He was the natural son of count Raymond of Toulouse, and followed his both were slain, and Issure resolved to take the veil. Before doing so, however, she renewed the poetic festival which had been established by the gay company of the seven troubadours, but had been, for a long time, forgotten, gave it the name of Jeur Horaur (q. v.), and assigned, as prizes for the victors in the poetical contests, the five different flowers which had served her as means for replying to her lover's passion. These flowers were wrought in gold and silver. Clemence Isaure appropriated all her fortune to the support of this mistitution. She was versed herself in the gaye science, and, having fixed upon the 1st of May as the day for the distribution of the prizes, she composed an ode on spring, which acquired for her the surname of the Sappho of Tordousc.

CLEMENT, Titus Flavius (probably a native of Athens, but, on account of the place of his residence, commonly called the . Mexandrian), was one of the most famous teachers of the Christian church, in the 2d and at the beginning of the 3d century. He had been a heathen philosopher, was converted to Christianity, and, after travelling a long time in Greece, Italy and the Last, became presbyter of the church of Alexandria, and teacher (catechetes) of the school in that city, in which place he succeeded Pantænus, his teacher, and was succeeded by Origen, These three instructers inհո⊲ pupil creased the fame of the Alexandrian school in the 2d and 3d century. Clement was a fertile writer. The most important among those of his productions which have been handed down to us, me inserthed Προτωεττικό, Παιδαγως ),, and Στρωμα-τιδ. or Στρώματα. The first is an exhortation to the heathers to embrace Christianity, the second an exposition of Christian morals, and the third, which exhibits the most varied gradition, has the title Carpets, on account of the variety of subjects. moral, metaphysical, theological, historical, which are here interwoven. It has been justly remarked that these works are an unitation of the degrees of the Greek mysteries. The first was the 'Αποκάθαρσις, the purification from the former life; the second, the Menous, the consecration; the

third, the Exostua, inspection. The works of Clement are of great importance, as enabling us to judge of the state of scifragments and accounts of lost works of antiquity. Clement introduced the eclectic philosophy into Christianity, and promoted the allegorical and mystical explanation of the sacred writings. The phi-losophy and crudition which gained him the admiration of his time, but also seduced him, at times, into singular speculations, caused him, at a later period, to be considered a heretic, and to lose, with the orthodox, the name of saint, which had been conferred on him. The first editions of his works are that at Florence, in 1550, and that at Heidelberg (Commehn.), 1502, by Frederic Sylburg, both in The most complete is that of John Potter, Oxon., A Theatro Sheldon, 1715, reprinted at Venice, 1757.

CLEMENT; the name of many popes. CLEMENT I, of Rome, was, according to the most probable computation, from 91 to 100, bishop in that city. He is counted among the apostolic fathers (see Church, Fathers of), because St. Paul, in his opistle to the Philippians (chap. w. verse 3), mennons a Clement as a co-laborer with him, and St. Peter is said to have given hun the spiritual consecration. He wrote two letters to the Counthiaus, of which the first is extant almost entire, but disfigured with some computions and interpolanons; of the second, only a fragment ex-There is a work, pretending to be the autobiography of Clement, containing an account of his life, and his travels with the apostle Peter, which, however, can be proved to have been written at the end of the 2d or the beginning of the 3d century. It exists in three different forms: the first and most complete is in a Latin translation by Rufinus, under the title Recognitiones, because Clement, after a number of the strangest adventures, finds the members of his family, who had been separated from him; the second is in Greek, and divided into homilies, under the title Clementina; the third is a short epitome, relating the acts, journeys and preaching of St. Peter. There is equally little reason for considering Clement the author of the body of apostohe constitutions and canons which are ascribed to him, though some of them may belong to him, or at least to his age. Of a far later origin are the pseudo-Clementine letters among the spurious decretals. The opinion started by professor Kestner, 1819, that Clement established a secret Christian

society, under the name Agape, for the systematic suppression of paganism, has not been adopted by any other theologian. CLEMENT II (Suidger, bishop of Bam-

CREMENT II (Suidger, bishop of Bamberg) was placed in the papal see by the emperor Henry III, in the room of the unworthy Benedict IX. He crowned this emperor, and held a synod for the suppression of smony. His death took place in 1047. He was probably poisoned by Benedict IX. (a. v.)

Benedict IX. (q. v.)
CLEMENT III (Guibert, archbishop of Ravenna, belonging to the party of the emperor Henry IV) was chosen pope in 1080, with the view of supplanting Gregory VII, and placed by violence in the Roman see (1084); maintained his rituation as anti-pope, even after Gregory's death, against Victor III, who was chosen by Gregory's adherents, and against Urban II, with various success, till 1089. was expelled by the Romans, and compelled to swear to renounce all claims to the papal authority; but, in 1091, he returned to Rome with Henry's army. Being again compelled to quit the city in 1094, he sought refuge at Henry's court, submitted, in 1099, to Urban's successor, Paschal II, and died at Ravenna, in 1100. He exercised the papal authority only in those provinces of Germany and Italy , which were under the dominion of the emperor, and is not numbered among the legal popes. Consequently, the cardinalbishop Paulus of Palestine, a Roman, chosen pope in 1187, was denominated Clement III. His government was rendered remarkable by a compact with the Romans, which put an end to the disputes that had previously been constantly occurring between them and their pontiffs, and strengthened his authority. He promoted the cru-ades, and supported Tancred in getting possession of the Sicilian crown. Tancred was a natural son of the duke Roger of Apulia. This pope died in 1191.

CLEMENT IV (Guido of St. Guilles, in Languedoc); previously counsellor to the king of France, and a lawyer. was also the father of two daughters. When a widower, he became archbishop of Narbonne, cardinal-bishop of Sabina, and legate in England. He was chosen pope in 1265, by the party of Charles of Anjou, and conferred on this prince the crown of both the Sicilies, then possessed Clement assisted Charles by Manfred. against Manfred by instigating a crusado against the latter, and did not obtain possession of Rome himself until 1268, after a residence of two years in France (until

1267), and subsequently at Viterbo, and after the last prince of the Hohenstaufen stock, Conradin, had been beheaded at Naples. Not satisfied with having caused the fall of the house of Hohenstaufen in Italy, he wished to decide the dispute between Richard of England and Alphonso of Spain, respecting the imperial throne of Germany, but died, without having accomplished his object, at Viterbo, Nov. 29, 1269. He was distinguished, as a ruler of the church, by his power and resolution, as an excellent preacher, strict ascetic, and enemy to nepotism.\*

CLEMENT V (Bertrand d'Agoust, from Gascony), previous to his election, archbishop of Bordeaux, and an adherent to Boniface VIII, who was the most inveterate enemy of Philip, king of France; but on the death of Boniface VIII, Philip gained him over by promising to promote his election, and obtained from him a secret agreement to conform entirely to his wishes. He was indebted for his election (which took place in Perugia, June 5, 1305) to the artifices of Philip's agents, who outwitted the Italian cardinals. He remained in France, on account of the civil wars in Italy, was crowned at Lyons, and then travelled about the country at the expense of the king and the French clergy, until, in 1309, he finally fixed upon Avignon as the constant residence of the With him, therefore, the papal court. series of French popes (or those who resided in Avignon) continences. In consideration of his agreement above-mennoned, he released the king and his servants from the excommunication which Bomface had pronounced against them, declared the penal bulls of this pope against France invalid, made cardinals of the king's favorites, and resigned to the king the tithes of France for five years. He, however, defeated Philip's plan of placing his brother Charles of Valois on the throne of Germany, and, against Plulip's desire, acquitted Boniface, after a tedious process, and long after his death, of the charge of heresy, at the council of Vienne. The holding of this council, which sat seven months, in 1311 and 1312, was the principal act of his reign. At this same council, in obedience to the wishes of Philip, he abolished the order of the Templars, and made salutary laws for the reform of the clergy and the monastic discipline, which, in honor of him,

were denominated Clementines. (q. v.) He endeavored to confirm his power in Italy by a close connexion with king Robert of Naples, his vassal. With his assistance. he humbled Venice, on which he had imposed the interdict, in 1308, to punish this state for having taken possession of Ferrara, and, in 1309, issued a new act of excommunication, by which he pronounced the Venetians infamous and outlawed, abolished all the offices of their government, released the people from obedience, and annulled the laws. By a crusade against Venice, in which his legate subdued Ferrara, and by the confiscation of Venetian vessels and goods, he reduced the republic to complete subjection, and put an end to the war in 1313. Robert rendered him still greater service by restraining the power of the German emperor, and that of the Ghibeline party The emperor Henry VII. alin Italy. though chosen by his influence, and bound to him by an oath of allegiance, knew well how to distinguish his rights in Italy from his obligations to the pope. On his march to Rome, in 1311, he found the whole of Lombardy in a state of revolt; and Clement refused him assistance, and even forbade his coronation, which Henry, however, extorted from the oardinals in Rome, in 1312. Henry, having engaged in a dispute with king Robert respecting the government of Naples, put him under the ban of the empire, and refused the pope's offer of mediation between him and his antagomst; upon which Clement issued bulls for the protection of his vassal, and excommunicated all the emperor's allies: Upon the emperor's death, Clement appointed Robert, in 1314, Roman senator and regent in Italy; but, in the midst of his plans for the complete subjection of this country, he died, April 20, 1314, at Roquemaure, in Languedoc. He left behind him an inglorious name. Constant embarras-ments, extravagance and pepotism, made him covetous, and led him to practise the most unlunited simony. He did great injury to the church by grantof valuable benefices to laymen, allowed his nephews to waste the money collected for the crusades, and Avignon to become the seat of every description of vice during his reign, the impurity of his own morals compelling him to overlook the faults of others. His establishment, at the council of Vienne, of chairs for instruction in the Oriental languages at the universities; his encouraging the studies of the monks, and restricting, in some degree, the crying injustice of the inquisition, cannot compen-

<sup>\*</sup> Nepotum, from nepos (nephew), denotes the ridde partiality of the popes towards their relations, and their produgal distribution of the offices and resenues of the church among them.

sine for the flagrant faults in his adminis-

tration of the papal see.

CLEVENT VI was a ruler not unlike the foregoing. His name was Peter Roger. He was born of a noble family in 1292, at Maumont, near Limoges; at first a Benedictine monk and abbot of Fecamp, afterwards bishop of Arras and counsellor of king Philip, likewise archlishop of . Sens and Rouen; in 1338, cardinal, and in 1312, pope at Avignon. By the distri- France, and, at a later period, Scotland, button of munberless abbeys and bishopcries to his favorites, by the sale of church offices, and by ordering the jubilee to be Selebrated every fiftieth year uistead of every hundredth, he soon gave proof of his avarice. The emperor Loins of Bavaria he treated with the greatest severity, following the foot-teps of his predecessor. His bulls of excommunication even surpassed those of the preceding pontiff in the violence of their anathemas and their ob-The son of the king of Bohemia, Charles of Luxemburg, who had formerly been his pupil at Paris, and was entirely devoted to him, was, by his influence, chosen king of the Romans, in 1346, by a part of the German members of the empire : but Clement was not able to get min universally acknowledged; after the death of Louis, in 1347, he was forced to grant to his adherents unconditional absoluten: and, in order to gain the incubers of the empire after the renunciation of the ovel candidate Gunther of Schwarzburg, he was obliged to consent to the reclection of Charles IV (q. v.), in 1349, without being able to obtain the entire fulfilment of the conditions, disadvantageous to the German empire, on which he had procured him the crown. Clement was more fortunate in Italy, where the revolt m Rome, under Rienzi (q. v.), m 1346, was soon quelled, and this remarkable man came into his power. The assassination of Andrew, king of Naples, afforded him an opportunity of inducing his widow, Joanna, who was suspected of being an accomplice in the mirder, to sell Avignon to the papal see, in 1348; in consideration of which, she received absolution, and was left in possession of her realing Thus the pope gained his possessions in France it a cheap rate. For a Spanish prince, he founded, in 1344, the kingdom of the Canary Isles. His negonations for a union with the Greeks and Armemans were without success. He died unregretted in 1352. He was mild and liberal, in fact too much so towards his relations, fond of women, and not even externally devout. Petrarch praises his good memory. His 31 . TOL. III.

writings are unimportant. During the great schism, two popes bore the name of Clement, who were not accounted legitimate popes by the church. Robert, count ' of Geneva, bishop of Cambray, and cardinal, was elected pope at the age of Mi, at Fondi, in 1478, by the French cardihals, who had abundoned pope Urban VI. He adopted the name of Clement VII. With him the great schism commenced, Lorraine, Savoy and Spain having joined him. He resided at Avignon, where he derived his support from annates and from the sale of benefices, and offered to allow the schism to be decided by a council of the church, but made no dispositions to bring this about. In Italy, he had no power, and was unable to protect the house of Anjou, in Naples. He died without reputation, Sept. 16, 1394. Still less power had the successor of the schismatic Benedict XIII, Ægidjus Muñoz, from Barcelona, who was elected pope by three cardinals at Pemscola, in 1424, and called Clement VIII. He was supported by king Alphonso of Arragon, and resided at Peniscola until 1429, when he was induced, by receiving the Lishopric of the Baleares, to give up his claims.

Car went VII (Julius of Medici), a natural son of Julius of Medici, prior of the knights of St. John, under pege Julius II. He was legiminated by he pircle Leo X, made archbishop of Floresce, cardinal and charcellor, and finerly raised to the papal see (Nov. 19, 1523). He equiexion with Francis I, king of France, involved him in a war with Charles V, to which he was by no means equal. The imperad army conquered and sacked Rome in 1527, unprisoned Clement for the space of seven months, in the castle of St. Angelo, and forced him to surrender all the strong places, and to pay a ransom'of 10,000 ducats. Notwithstanding his hight to Orvieto, in which he was assisted by the French marshal Lautree, he was compelled to perform this condition, and to appoint cardinals and prelates for money, to enable him ultimately to conclude peace with the emperor in 1529. crowned Charles at Bologna in 1580, and obtained of him the reestablishment of the family of Medici in the duchy of Florence. He was not able to prevent the progress of the reformation in Germany, and, in England, he even accelerated it, by issuing a bull against the di-vorce of Henry VIII, which insugated that monarch to a total rupture with the pope. France received from him a per-

micious present in the person of his niece, Catharine of Medici (q. v.), whom he mar-yied, at Marscilles, in 1533, to the duke of Orleans, second son of king Francis I. He was intent on new schemes against. Charles V, when he died, at the age of 56, Sept. 25, 1534. His morals have been commended; but as a ruler, he was weak, faithless, irresolute, unwise, and, in his in honor of him, was called the Clementine enterprises, unfortunate. His main object peace; and likewise terminated the differand his reign brought no advantage to the church.

CLEMENT VIII (Hippolito Aldobrandini) ascended the papal throne by the influence of Spain, Jan 30, 1591. His refusal to acknowledge the French king Henry IV, whom he did not absolve till 1595, occasioned the limitation of his power in France; nor was he able to accomplish his wish of rendering Venice dependent on the papal sec. On the other hand, he obtained sufficient political influence to maintain possession, without opposition, of the duchy of Ferrara, taken by force from the house of Este, in 1598; to mediate a peace between France and Spain, at Vervins, m 1598; and, having passed over in silence the edict of Nantes, and given his consent to the divorce of Henry IV. from Margaret, he was able to prevent another war between the same powers in 1600. By favoring the Dominicans at the commercement of the dispute de auxiliis gratia (see Grace), and by denying canonization to Loyola, he brought on a rupture with the Jesuits, whose intrigues he counteracted in England. They were therefore suspected of having occasioned his death, which took place March 5, 1605. Clement, in 1592, caused a second edition of the Vulgate of pope Sixtus V to be prepared, with material alterations. His credulity was abused by an impostor, who pretended to bring an offer of submission to the papal see from the patriarch of Alexandria; and he was unsuccessful in an attempt to unite the Christians of St. Thomas (q. v.), in the East Indie-, with the Roman Catholic church.

Clement IX (Julius Rospigliosi), born at Pistoia, in 1600, was, for 11 years, nuncio to Spain; in the service of the papal court, and cardinal and secretary of state under Alexander VII. He was elected pope June 20, 1667, distinguished himself, by his wisdom and mild and benevolent spirit, amongst the popes of his century. He endeavored to improve the finances of the Roman government; secularized the possessions of several ecclesiastical orders (the canons of St. Gregory, in Alga, at Venice; the Jesu-

its, and the brothers of St. Jerome of Fig. sole) and convents, to procure means to enable the Venetians to equip themselves against the Turks, and even assisted them with troops and galleys; contributed to bring about the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, put an end to the disputes with the Jansenists, by a compromise, in 1668, which, was, the elevation of the house of Medici, ences between Portugal and the papal chair, which had lasted many years, by confirming the bishops nominated by king Pedro. He banished the Jews from Korne, with few exceptions, and probabiled the missionaries from carrying on trade. He died, Dec. 9, 1669, of grief at the taking of Candia by the Turks. His court was splendid: his character noble, mild and rich in princely virtues, which ensuredhim universal love.

Ulement X (Emilio Altieri), born, 1589. of a patrician family of Rome, was admitted into the college of cardmals Nov. 26, 1669, at the age of 80, and came to the papal throne April 29, 1670. The first use which he made of his authority was to patronise his relations, one of whom, cardural Paluzzi Altieri, completely governed hun. He endeavored to diminish the taxes, and allowed the nobility to carry on wholesale trade; but was obliged to recall at decree which exempted the foreign am- . bassadors, in Reme, from the payment of dunes. He had little influence in foreign countries. His reign was rendered remarkable by the commencement of the dispute with the king of France-concernmg the right to dispose of benefices and church lands, which was claimed by that monarch, and had serious consequences under Linocent XI. He was an enemy to the diffusion of learning, and prohibited many useful writings. The festivities of the jubilee, which he celebrated in 1675, were increased by the presence of queen Christina of "weden. He refused to countenance a league of Russia and other Christian monarchs against Turkey. His death, which took place July 22, 1676, was regretted only by his relations.

CLYMENT XI (John Francis Albam), born at Urbino, July 23, 1649, became cardinal in 1690, and, was distinguished by his knowledge of business and enterprising spirit—qualities peculiarly valuable in a ruler during a period of great political perplexity, occasioned by the disputed succession in Spain. He was accordingly elected pope by one party to the dispute, Nov. 23, 1700. Rome had cause to rejoice that he showed himself an enemy to

nepotism, and succeeded in his severe regulations against the privileges claimed by foreign ambassadors for the quarter of the city in which they resided, on the ground that it ought to be considered as foreign territory. In the government of the church, and in the management of foreign affairs, he evinced more passionate violence than actual courage; and, with a striking want of political tact, more obstinacy and prejudice than decision of . character. He resisted in vain the creauon of the royal dignity in Prussia, and his partiality to the Bourbons, in the Spanish war of succession, proved munious to him, particularly as he gave the imperial court other causes of disantsfaction. He not only refused the request of the emperor Joseph to acknowledge his brother Charles in Spain, but likewise protested against the imperial right of the first bull, viz. the right claimed by the emperor, on their accession to the throne, of presenting candidates on the first vacancies which . occurred in the eccle-metical establishments of Germany, called Stifter. Neither threats of excommunication not preparations for war prevented the imperial troops from entering the States of the garrisoning Connectino. Church and Clement was compelled, in 1700, to cede Comacchio to the emperor, to dismis-5000 of his troops, to grant to the impenial troops a free passage to Naples, and to acknowledge Charles III as king of Spann. He was thus completely separated from Philip V of Spain, who, for some years, gave up all connexion with Rome. He effected nothing by his protestation against the peace of Altranstadt and the election of king Stanislaus, and his nuncio was not admitted to the deliberations which resulted in the peace of Utrecht. Ingratitude and vexation were his rewards from the Jesuits, as well as from the Bourbons. Whilst in China, the Jesuits bade defiance to his prohibition of introducing heathen forms into Christian worship, illtreated his envoys, and finally compelled him to comply with their wishes: they led him, from a spirit of revenge towards the Jansemsts in France, into measures injurious to the church and the papal authority. (See Unigenitus.) Clement entered into a contest, in 1713, respecting the rights of the crown of Sicily in church affairs, which neither his abolishment of the privilege nor his excommunication of Sicily could terminate, and he was at last compelled to yield, on account of the burdensome obligation of supporting the many priests and monks who had fled

from Sicily, and looked to him for aid as martyrs in his cause. None but the English pretender, whom he supported in Rome front the year 1717, and the king of Portugal, for whom he established a patriarchate in Lisbon, were sincerely devoted to him. In the government of the States of the Church, he proved himself well disposed. He enriched the library of the Vatican with Oriental manuscripts, and by the addition of his private library. In Bologna, he founded an academy of the fine arts, and was a general friend and patron of science. He was himself versed in theology, and occasionally preached at St. Peter's church. He died of an illness occasioned by excessive indulgence in confectiopary, March 19, 1721. This pope lived at a time when the decline of the papal authority was becoming evident.

CLEMENT XII (Laurentius Corsini), a native of Florence, was born April 7, 1652, ` and created pope July 12, 1730. His relations with the Catholic powers were attended with as much trouble and vexation as those of his predecessor. He was torced to bestow on the infant of Spain, only eight years of age, the cardinal's har and the archbe-hopric of Toledo; to submit to the levying of troops by the Spanmails in the States of the Church, and, ": fler a cor motion thereby created, to admut a Spanish garrison into his dominions, and to allow Parma, long a papal fief, to pass, first to an infant and then to the German emperor, without gaining any thing by his submission but some advantageous reservations in the concordat made with Spain, 1737. We had a dispute with Venice concerning the privilege claimed by the amoa-sadors, of having their quarter of the city exempt from the jurisdiction of the Roman government, and at last submitted. Nor was his opposition to the royal right of patronage over the ecclesiastical benefices in Savoy more effectual, notwithstanding his threat of excommunicating the king. He did not even succeed in obtaining the little repubhe St. Marino. Convinced that he could gain nothing from the Catholics, Clement bent his thoughts seriously to the conversion of heretics, and therefore omitted the annual proclamation of the bull In cana Domini. Another bull, in which, unacquainted with the particular circumstances of the case, he promised the Protestants in Saxony to leave them the property of the church, which had been secularizedduring the reformation, if they would become Catholics, like their elector, only exposed him to ridicule. His preachers

of reperitance in Silesia made no impression on the Protestants. The submission of the patriarch in Constantinople was prevented by the Greeks, and the gratifi-, cation of the sangume hopes of the pope was limited to the conversion of a prince of Morocco, whom he them had to mainwhom he made Roman senator. provided for future conversions by instituting an ecclesiastical seminary for young Greeks in Calabria, which was named, after lum, the Corsiman seminary. He improved the police of Rome, by abolishing the asylums, and by prohibiting arti-cles of luxury; supported the pawn-house; creeted a foundling hospital, and buildings for the embellishment of Rome; collected statues in the capitol, and Oriental manuscripts in the Vatican (where, at that time, Syriae manuscripts were published), and promoted learning in general. Notwithstanding a state lottery, of which he recerved the chief profits, and also three jabilees held during his reign, which yielded large sums, his nepotism, his love of splendor, and his luxurious habits, greatly exceeded his means, and he died m debt, Feb. 6, 1740.

CLEMI ST XIII (Charles Rezzonico) born in 1693, at Venice, was made pope July 6, 1758, by the influence of the empress Maria Theresa and the Jesuits. In acknowledgment of the aid of the former, he conferred on her the title of apostolic majesty, and promoted the interests of the latter at the expense of his honor and peace. During his government, they were expelled from Portugal, Spain, France, Naples, Sicily and Parma, and took refuge with him. Though these fugitives were a great burden to him, he still favored then order in a particular bull, in 1765, without, however, being able to prevent its decline. The persecution of his favorites happened at a time when he was engaged in disputes respecting the provileges of the church in Parma, and, by ins arrogance towards the Bourbons, had lost Avignon, Venaissm and Benevento; when his reservation of benefices in Spain was rejected, the tribute of Naples refused, and Germany was instructed, by Justus Febronius, respecting the limits of the papal authority. During this period, too, Rome twice suffered from famme, viz. in 1764 and 1766. He was governed entirely by his secretary of state, Torreggano, and the general of the Jesuits, Ricci, and even ventured, in 1768, by repeating the bull In cana Domini, in a threatening brief to Parma, to irritate all the Catholic courts,

and died in the midst of contentions, Feb. 2, 1769. He was a weak, desponding old man, whose untimely zeal gained the appearance of energy only by the violent measures of his two counsellors.

CLEMENT XIV (Giovanni Vincenzo Antonio Ganganelli), son of a physician, born tain, and of a Swedish count Bielke, at St. Arcangelo, near Rimini, in 1705, entered the order of Mihorites in his 18th year, studied philosophy and theology, soon became a teacher binself, and gained the affection and esteem of his pupils. He instilled into them exalted sentiments and feelings, and endeavored to free them from all monkish habits and narrow-The keen-sighted Beneminaed ideas. diet XIV, we are told, once had his hand on Ganganelli's head, and said to the general of his order, "Take good care of this brother; I recommend him particularly to your charge." During the government of this pope, Ganganelli obtained the important station of counsellor of the holy see. Benedict, who beheld in him German phiegm joined to Italian vivacity, often consulted hum. "He unites," he said, "solid judgment to deep knowledge, and is a thousand times more modest than an ignorant man, and as cheerful as if he had never lived in recoment." XIII bestowed the cardical's but upon Ganganeth: but, great as were his virtues and talents, there was not the most distant prospect of seeing him in the chair of St. Peter. The freedom with which he expresed hunself on the necessity of subnating wisely to the will of monarchs seemed little calculated to gain the tayor of the rest of the cardinals. In the congregations of cardinals, held under the eye of the pope, relating to the duchies of Panna and Piacenza, and to the affairs of the Jesint- he gave his opinion so directly in opposition to the pope and the secretary of state, that his advice was no longer asked. "If the Roman court is not to be precipitated from its exalted station,? he often exclaimed, "it is necessary to preserve the favor of monarchs; for their arms extend befond the bounds of their dominions, and their power reaches over the Alps and the Pyrences." These sentiments were displeasing at Rome, but ensured him powerful supporters on the occasion of a vacancy in the papal chait. Clement XIII died; the conclave waviolent and disunited, until the eloquence of the cardinal Berms prevailed, and Ganganelli was proclaimed, May 19, 1769, head of the church, although he was not a bishop. No pope, perhaps, had ever been elected under more difficult circum-

terms with the holy see, wished to put itself under the government of a patriarch; the manner in which the duke of Parma had been treated had displeased the kings of France, Spain and Naples; Venice was determined to reform the ecclesiastical orders without the pope's interposition; Poland was endeavoring to reduce the papal authority; even the Romans murmured. Clement began his reign with laboring to reconcile the monarchs; sent a nuncio to Lisbon; suppressed the bull In cana Domini, which had incensed the potentates, and negotiated with Spain and France. When called on to abolish the order of the Jesuits, he wrote, "I am the father of all behevers, and particularly of ecclesiastics. I dare not dissolve a disunguished order without reasons to justify the act before God and posterity." nally, after several years of negotiation, he issued the famous brief, July 21, 1773, termed Dominus ac Redemtor nosters which abobshed the order. But from that time he led a life of anxiety, fear and repentance; his strength declined. "I am going into eternity," he said, "and I know the cause." He died Sept. 22, 1774. The words of the pope gave use to suspicious of his having been poisoned; which were the more readily admitted as the pope himself countenanced them by taking antidotes. But these suspicions are negatived by the opinion of physicians, and it is behaved that his saying, above quoted, teters to the grief he felt for having yielded to the wishes of the sovereigns in abolishing the Jesuits without being convinced of the necessity of the measure. Carlo Giorgi, one of his officers, honored the memory of his benefactor by erecting a marble monument to him in the church of the apostles in Rome, which Canova executed according to a plan of Volpato. Since Sixtus V, no pope has sat in the chair, of St. Peter, who has governed with more wisdom and independence. Clement was distinguished for his enlightened spirit, political suggesty and erudition, excellence of character, firmness and active my. He was a pation of the arts and sciences, and the founder of the Musco Clementino, a great ornament of the Vatican.\*

CLEMENT, Jacques, the assassin of Henry III, king of France, born at the village

Portugal, which was on ill of Sorbon, in the archbishopric of Rheims, had been but a short time a member of the order of Dominicans, and was only 25 years old, when the party-spirit of the League (q. v.) instigated the weak-headed enthusiast to assassinate the king. (See t Henry III.) His prior, Bourgoing, in particular, to whom he confided his project, encouraged him, and exhorted him to pray and fast, that the will of God might be made known to him. It is said that a nocturnal voice, which he was made to hear, called upon him to free his , country from the tyrant. The duchess of Montpensier, sister of the Guises (see Guise, Henry), is accused of having confirmed him in his determination, and of having encouraged him by the assurance that, if he escaped, he should be raised to the cardinalship by the pope, and if he perished, he should be placed amongst the saints. The enthusiast repaired, in July, 1589, from Paris to St. Cloud, where the king resided. The procureur-general, to whom he was conducted, suspected him, and caused him to be watched at night, when he was discovered fast asleep, with the place treating of the murder of Holofernes by Judith lying open in the The, following breviary before him. morning, he was brought before the king, and pretended to be the bearer or upportant despatches from Paris; but, whilst the king was reading the letter handed him by the traitor, Clement stabbed him, and left the kmfe in the wound. Two courtiers, Lognac and Guesle, who enter ed upon hearing the king's cries, instantly stabled the assassm. Clement's corpse was placed on a hurdle, and drawn to the place of execution, where it was torn by four horses, and burnt. The wild madness of party-spirit, of which he was made the instrument, considered him as a martys. His mother, some time after, appearing at Parls, the monks exhorted the people to go to meet the holy mother of the sout. His image was placed on the altars, and the earth which had drank his blood at St. Cloud was collected. Even the pope Sixtus V pronounced the eulogy of the assassin in the assembly of the cardutals, and compared hun to Judith and Eleazar.

CLEMENTI, MUZIO; one of the greatest performers and composers for the pianoforte now hving, and the only distinguished performer on this instrument, among the Italians, who can be opposed to Bach The French have called him, in jest, the papa of the living piano-forte players, partly on account of his age, and partly from

<sup>\*</sup> The story that the proper name of Ganganelli was John Gottfried Lange, that he was born Oct.22 Breslau without ever giving information of what had become of him is by no means proved 21 \*\*

: his having been the instructer of many distinguished performers of the present generation (Crumer, Field, &c.), and, the founder of a new school. He was born in Rome, in 1752. His father, a silversmith, was himself fond of music, and had his son instructed as well, as his means allowed, young Clementi showing master. In his 7th year, an organist, Cordicelli, instructed him in thoroughbase, and, in his 9th year, he passed on examination as an organist. He then reserved instruction from the fitmous surger Santarelli, and from Carpini, the celebrated contrapuntist. At this time, in his 12th year, he wrote a mass for four voices, which was received with great applause. He had made such progress in his performance on the pano-forte, that an Lingk-hman, Mr. Beckford, was anxious to take , hun'to England. The father at length conserted, and young Clementi studied at the country-seat of Mr. Beckford, in Dorset-hare, and soon made hunself master of the English language. In he 15th year, he far excelled all las contemporaries in skill and expression, and published his Opus Ile which formed a new epoch in this species of composition. It has finmished the basis of all modern senates for the piano-forte, and its simplicity and novelty have attracted the admiration of all connorseurs and amateurs. Amer leaving Dorsetshire, he was engaged as director of the orchestra of the opera in London. His fame mercased rapidly. In the year 1780, he went to Paris, where he was received with enthusiasm. From thence he proceeded, in the simmer of 1781, to Vienna, where he became acquainted with Mogart and Haydn, and played before the emperor Joseph II with the former. He likewise publiched several compositions. In 1784, he repeated his visit to Paris, but, after that, remained in England till 1802.— The loss which he sustained from the fadure of a large commercial establishment induced bun to give lessons in music for a time. In his lessure hours, he occupied himself with playing on the piano-forte, and the improvement of this , instrument. He had previously published his famous Introduction to the Art of Piano-forte Playing. In the year 1802, he went to Paris, for the third time, with · 'his scholar Field; from thence to Vienna' add to St. Petersburg, where Field remained. Clementi was universally admired. From Petersburg, the piano-forte

player Zouner followed him to Berlin and Dresden, From Dresden, he was accom-panied by Klengel the organist, who was anxious to improve under his care. At Berlin, Clementi married his record wife. whom he took with him into Italy, but lost on his return to Berhin. He then went anew to St. Petersburg, with the , great talent and inclination for this art. distinguished panno-force performer and Burom, one of his relations, was his first instructor Berger, and afterwards returned again to Vienna. In the following year, family concerns carried him to Rome and Milan. In the summer of 1810, he ventured, notwithstanding the closure of the continental ports, to return to England, where he arrived safely, and married his third wife. In the mean time, he continued to compose, and wrote some grand symphonics for the philharmonic society. One of his most valuable works is his Gradus ad Parnassum, which occupied han a long time. He has likewise superintended the construction of instruments, and this business has been very lucrative to him. He has one of the principal musical establishments in London, his instruments being highly esteemed. In 1820, be again went to the continent, and remained at Lepsie till Easter in 1821. where two new symphonies of his were performed. Notwithstanding his great age, he possesses all his former liveliness and activity. His compositions are as pleasing as they are thoroughly correct and pure in their style. His performance has great execution, and he plays extempore with distinguished ability.

CLIMPATINES; the name given to certan ordinar es proceeding from popes of the name of Climent, chiefly such as were given at the council of Vienne, in 1311, by Clement V (q. v.), and which form a part of the corpus juris canonici. (See Canon Law.)

CLEOBIS and BITOS. Herodotus relates an affecting story of these two youths, the sons of Cychopic, chief-priestess of Juno at Argos. At the Harm, a feast in honor of Juno, it was customary for the chiefpriestess to be drawn by two white oven. On one occasion, the procession had already begun to move, and the oxen had not arrived; upon which Cleobis and Biton drew the chariot of their mother, for the distance of 45 stadus, up the mountain where the temple of Juno stood. The people applauded, and the mother was so affected by this instance of filial affection, that she begged the goddess to grant her sons the best gift which could be conferred on mortals. While the youths were yet in the temple, a soft sleep fell upon " them, and they never awoke. (Herodot. i, 31.) The Argives placed the statues of Cleobis and Biton in the temple at Delphi, and in a temple at Argolis, they were represented drawing the charies of their

mother. .(Pausan. ii, 20.)

CLEOBULUS; one of the seven wise men, as they were called; a native of Lindus, or, according to some, of Rhodes, or Cain. He travelled to Egypt to learn wisdom, like many of the sages of Greece. He was king of Rhodes, and was succeeded on the throne by his daughter Several of his savings are Cleobulina. extant.

CLEONBROTUS, son of Pausanias, king of Sparta. During his reign began the Theban war, in which he commanded the Spartan- against Eparamondas and Pelopidas. He was killed in the battle of Leuctra, which happened July 5, 371 B. C., according to the Julian calendar.

(Sec Epaminondas.)

CLEOM SES, the name of three kings of Sparta, the most distinguished of whom is Cleomene - III, son of Leonidas. He intended to retorm Sparta, and to re-store the institutions of Lycurgus, after the example of Agis, his brother, who had lost his life in a similar attempt. Cleomones distinguished himself in a war against the Acheans, communded by Aratus Returning to Spara with a part of the army, he put to death the ephon, made a new division of lands, and introduced again the old Spartan system of s ducation, made his brother fus colleague, and provided that in future two kings sliould always sit on the throne of Sparia. He lived very simply, was just and friendly towards every body. He treated his enemies with generosity; for instance, the Achients, who had begun a new war and were conquered. He-showed himself an able general, in a war against the Macedomans and Achieans united, but, at last, lost the important battle of Sellasia. Cleomenes iled to Egypt, where he was supported by Ptolemy Euergetes, but his son Ptolemy Philoputor kept Cleomenes in confinement; upon which he and 12 fellow-prisoners killed each other. With Cleomenes expired the race of the Herachde which had sat on the throne of Sparta.

CLEON. (See Pericles.)

CLEOPATRA. Amongst several Egyptian princesses of this name, the most renowned was the eldest daughter of Ptoleiny Auletes, wife to his eldest son Ptolemy, with whom she shared the throne of Egypt. Both were minors at the death

of their father, and were placed under the guardianship of Pothinus and Achilles, who deprived Cleopatra of her share in the government. She went to Syria, and was forming plans for obtaining her rightby force, when Casar (q. v.) came to Alexandria, and, captivated with her youthful charms, seconded her claims; and though the people of Alexandria were excited to a revolt by the arts of her brother, Casar succeeded in pacifying them, and procured Cleopatra her share of the throne. But Pothinus stirred up a second revolt, upon which the Alexandrian war commenced, in which the elder Ptolemy losing his life, Cashr proclaimed Cleopatra queen of Egypt; but she was compelled to take her brother, the younger Ptolemy, who was only 11 years old, as her husband and colleague on the throne. Casar continued some time at Cleopatra's court, and had a son by her named Casagion. After Casar's departure, she governed undisturbed. She subsequently made a journey to Rome, where Che-ar received her magnificently, and erceted a statue to her, next to the statue of Venu- in the temple consecrated to that dery. This act, however, excited the displeasure of the people, and Cleopatra soon returned to her own dominious. When her brother, at the age of 14, demanded his share in the government, Cleopatra poisoned him, and remained sole possessor of the regal power. During the civil war in Rome, she took the part of the trumvirs, and, after the battle of Philippi, she sailed to join Antony at Tarsus. She was then 25 years old, and combined with extraordinary beauty great wit and the highest elegance of manners. She appeared in a magnificently decorated ship, under a golden canopy, arrayed as Venus, surrounded by beautiful boys and girls, who represented Cupids and Graces. Her meeting with Antony was attended by the most splendid festivals After having accompanied him to Tyre, she returned to Egypt. Antony followed thus, and gave himself up to the most extravagant pleasures. She accompanied him on his march against the Parthians. and, when he parted from her on the Euphrates, he bestowed Cyrene, Cyprus, Coelesyria, Phoenicia, Cilicia and Crete on her, to which he added part of Judea and Arabia, at her request. After this, Antony conquered Armenia, returned triumphantly to Egypt, and made his three sons by Cleopatra, and also Cresarion, kings. Now commenced the war between Octavius and Antony; but, instead of acting prompt-

whole year in festivals and amusements with Cleopatra at Ephesus, Samos and Athens, and at last determined to decide the contest by a naval battle. At Actium (q. v.) the flects met. Cleopatra, who had brought Antony a reinforcement of 60 vessels, suddenly took to flight, and thus cansed the defeat of her party; for Antony, as if under the influence of frenzy, immediately followed her. They fled to Egypt, and declared to Octavius that if Egypt were left to Cleopatra's children, they would thenceforth live in retirement. But Octavius demanded Antony's death, and advanced towards Alexandria, which Antony hastened to defend. Cleopatra determined to burn herself with all her treasures, but Octavius pacified her by private messages. These communications, however, did not remain concealed from Antony, who, supposing Cleopatra treacherous, hastened to her, to avenge himself by her death. She, however, escaped, and took refuge in the monument destined for her sepulchre, which she had erected near the temple of Isis, and caused the report of her suicide to be circulated. Antony now threw himself upon his sword, but before he expired was informed that Cleopatra was still living, upon which he caused himself to be carried into her presence, and breathed his last in her arms. Octavius succeeded in getting Cleopatra into his power, who still hoped to subdue him by her charms; but her art- were unavading, and, becoming aware that her life was spared only that she might grace the conqueror's trainph, she determined to escape this ignormity by a voluntary death. She ordered a splendid feast to be prepared, desired her attendants to leave her, and put an asp, which a faithful servant had brought her, concealed amongst flowers, on her arm, the bite of which caused her death almost immediately (B. C. 30). Octavius, in his triumphal procession, had a portrait of the queen, with a serpent on her arm, carried before him. Her body was interred near that of Antony. At the time of her death, she was 39 years old, and had reigned 22 years.

\*CLEPSTORA (fireck, \$\lambda i \forall \cdots on an instrument intended to measure time by the falling of drops of water, and not unlike our hour-glasses. The length of time which it measured was not uniform. (Ptis. Ep. ii, 11.) They were an important instrument in the Greek and Roman courts. To prevent the lawyers from

ly against his adversary, Antony lost a whole year in festivals and amusements with Cleopatra at Ephesus, Samos and Athens, and at last determined to decide the contest by a naval battle. At Actium (q. v.) the fleets met. Cleopatra, who land brought Antony a reinforcement of 60 vessels, suddenly took to flight, and thus canest the defeat of her party; for Antony, as if under the influence of frenzy, immediately followed her. They fled to Egypt, and declared to Octavius that if Egypt were left to Cleopatra's children, they would thenceforth live in retirement.

more artificial construction.

· CLERPAYT (Francis Schastian Charles Joseph de Croix), count of, an Austrian general, born in 1733, in the castle of Bruille, near Buche, in Hainault, distinguished himself in the seven years' war. particularly in the battles of Prague, Lissa, Hochkircherrand Liegnitz, and was among the first who received the order of Maria Theresa, in 1757. During the insurrection in the Actherlands, in 1787, he rejected every proposal to betray the cause of Jo-seph 11. In 1788 and 1789, he fought against the Turks as licutenant-general field-mar-hal, and received the appointment of general of the artillery, and the grand cross of the order of Maria Theresa, in 1790. In 1792, he commanded an army of 10,000 men in the Netherlands, and lost the famous battle of Jemappes, no less honorable to the vanquished than to the victor His subsequent retreat towards the Rhme, with a handful of fellowers, closely pursued by the enemy, added much to his reputation. He gained advantages over the French at Nerwinden, Quievram, Famars, Le Quesno, &c. In 1794, he was opposed to Pichegru in West Flanders, and yielded to superior force only after seven well-contested combats. In 1795, he received the baton of field-marshal, and the supreme command of the imperial troops on the Rinne. He afterwards resigned inscommand to the archduke Charles, became a member of the Austrian council of war and died at Vienna, in 1798, where a superb monument was erected to him by the city. Clerifyt united with the talents of a general all the qualities of a good entizen, and of an excellent man. His tenantry found in him the mildest master. His purse was always open to those of his dependents, who needed and deserved his assistance; and all the obligations which they had given him for repayment. he burned on the day before his death. He was simple in his dress, but, when engaged against the enemy, he was never seen otherwise than in his full uniform, and with the badges of the orders to which he belonged. "The day of battle," he said, "is the day of honor to the warrior."

CLERGY (from the Latin clerus, derived from the Greek Adipos, the share or heritage) signifies the body of ecclesiastical persons, in contradistinction to the laymen. The Greek word was applied in this sense, in order to indicate that this, (1000 square miles, with 210,000 inhabitclass was to be considered as the particular inheritance and property of God—a metaphor taken from the Old Testament. The clerus was divided, in the ancient church, Into the high and low. To the former belonged the bishops, presbyters and deacous; to the latter, all the other ecclesiastical persons. The support of the elergy m different countries constitutes an interesting subject in political economy, and has been investigated in a work cutifled. Remarks on the Consumption of the Public Wealth by the Clergy of every Nation : London, 1822, 2d ed. (See Church, and Ecclesinstical Establishments.) When a Catholic priest receives the ton-ure, he repeats a part of the 16th realm, "The Lord is the portion of mme inheritance," &c The Catholic clergyman, according to the doctrine of the Roman church, is endowed, in his spiritual character, with a supernatural power, which distinguishes Lim essentially from the layman, as the power to forgive sus, and to consecrate the bread, so as to convert it into the real body of Christ, &c.

CLERGY, BUNLEYS OF See Benefit of

Clergy.)

CLIBK, John, of Eldm: the invenor of the modern British system of naval taeties, which is the more remark dik, as he was a country gentleman, not acquainted with navigation. In 1779, he imparted to his friends his new system of breaking through the line of the enemy. Lord Rodney first made use of it, in his victory of April 12, 1782, over the French, under De. Grasse, between Dommica and Les Samtes. Since then, Clerk's principles have been applied by all the English admals, and fords Howe, St. Vincent, Duncan and Nelson owe to them their most signal victories. (See Playfair's Memoir, in the Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, vol. 18, p. 1; also the article Naval Tactics.)

CLEVELAND; a post-town of Ohio, and capital of Cuyahoga county, on lake Erie, at the mouth of the Cuyahoga, at the point where the Ohio canal reaches lake Erre, 60 fmles E. of Sandusky, 150 W. S. W. of Buffalo, 160 N. P. of Golumbus; lon. 81° 46′ W.; lat. 41° 31′ N. It is a flour-

ishing town, important from its situation at the termination of the Ohio canal, and from its connexion with the steam-boat navigation from Buffalo, and is one of the most considerable commercial places on lake Erie.

CLEVES, formerly the capital of the dukedom of Cleves, now the chief place of the Prussian circle of the same name ants), is situated in a pleasant plain, a league from the Rhine, with which it is connected by a canal. The city contains 1000 houses, with 6000 inhabitants. thas many manufactures, particularly of wool, cotton and silk. The iron sarcophagus of a prince Maurice, of Nassau-Siegen, buried here, is surrounded by Roman urns. inscriptions, lamps, &c., which are found in the neighborhood. Prussia acquired Cleves as early as 1600; and, after it had changed masters several times, it came again into the possession of this government. It is now a strong fortress, lying on the small river Kermisdal, over against the Netherlands. The German dialect spoken here much resembles the Dutch.

CLIFNI, in ancient Rome, were citizens of the lower ranks, who chose a patron . from the higher classes, whose duty it was to assist them in legal cases, to take a paternal care of them, and to provide for then security. The chents, on the other hand, were obliged to portion the daugh ters of the patron, if he had not sufficient fortune; to ransom hun, if taken prisoner and to vote for him, if he was candidate for an office. Chents and patrons were under mutual obligation not to accuse each other, not to bear witness against each other, and, in general, not to do one another any marry. Romulus, who had established this relation, in order to unite more firmly the patricians and pleberans, made a law that he who had omitted his duty as chent or patron might be slain by any body. During a period of 600 years, no instance was known of a disagreement between the chents and patrons. This relation continued till the time of the emperors. It is certainly famong the most interesting and curious which thistory mentions and must be considered as one of the first attempts at a regular government; as the transition from a patriarchal state, in which family relations are pre-dominant, to a well-developed political system, securing the rights and independence of the individual.—In modern times, the word client is used for a party to a law-r suit, who has put his cause into the hands of a lawyer.

CLIPTORD, George, the third earl of intended to represent now in use, viz., the literary and pulitary abilities, was born in Westmoreland, in 1558. He studgied at Peterhouse in Cambridge. His attention, at this period, was principally directed to mathematics and navigation, . in both which he became a great proficient. In 1586, he took part in the trial of queen Mary Stuart: and, in the course of the . same year, sailed to the coast of South America, having under his command a small squadron, which sensibly annoved the Portuguese trade in that part of the world. Two years afterwards, he commanded a ship in the ever memorable action with the "invincible armada;" and subsequently fitted out, at his own expense, no foyer than nine expeditions to the Western Islands and the Spanish Mani, in one of which he succeeded in capturing a valuable plate-ship. His skill in martial exercises and knightly accomplishments on shore was no less distinguished than his naval tactics; and queen Elizabeth, with whom he was in great favor, not only appointed him her champion in the court tournaments, but employed him in the more serious task of reducing the headstrong Essex to obedience. He was made a knight of the garter in 1591. He died Oct. 30, 1605, m London.

CLIFFORD, Anne, a spirited English lady, the only daughter of the above, was bein in 1589. Her first husband was Richard, lord Buckhurst, afterwards carl of Dorset, by whom she had three sons, who died young, and two daughters. Her second husband was the eccentric Plulip, earl of Pembroke, by whom she had no issue. This lady wrote memors of her first husband, as also sundry memorials of herself and progenitors, all of which remain in manuscript. In the course of her life, she built two hospitals, and creeted or repaired seven churches. She also ero ted monuments to the poets Spenser and Daniels, the latter of whom was her tutor. She is, however, more celebrated for a high-spirited reply to sir Joseph Williamson, secretary of state, after the restoration, who had presumed to nominate a candidate for her borough of Appleby:-"I have been bulled," she writes, "by a · usurper: I have been neglected by a court; but I will not be dictated to by a subject: your man sha'n't stand."

CLIFFS, or CLAVES: certain indicial. characters placed at the beginning of the several staves in a composition, to determine the local names of the notes, and the sounds in the great scale which they are

The three cliffs now in use, viz., the F, or bass cliff, the C, or tenor-cliff, and the G, or treble cliff, by the several situations given them on the stave, furnish us with the means of expressing all the notes within the usual compass of execution, both in vocal and instrumental music, without a confused addition of leger lines, either above or

beneath the stave. CLIFTON, William, was the son of a wealthy mechanic of Philadelphia, and was born in that city in 1772. He early discovered great vivacity and intelligence, and a fondness for literature, but he was . brought up in the manners and principles of the stricter order of Quakers, his paronts being of that sect. The rupture of a blood-vessel, at the age of 19, debilitated his naturally feeble constitution so much that he was incapacitated for business, and was thus enabled to devote himself more particularly to the literary pursuits, of which he was fond. His first effusions, both in prose and verse, appeared in the newspapers, and other fugitive publications. He afterwards commenced a poem, entitled the Chimeriad, which he did not finish. In this the genus of fulse philosophy is personated with much spirit and boldness of imagination, under the character of the witch Chimeria. But the best of his productions is perhaps the Epistac to Mr. Gifford; published anonymously in the first American edition of Mr. Gifford's poems. It, exhibits the author's portical thought and power of versitication to great advantage. But the hopes of future exc llence, which these productions afforded, were not to be gratified The pulmonary complaints of the author assumed a more decided character, and be died in December, 1799, in the 27th year

CLIMACTERIC (annus climactericus); & entical year or period in a man's age, wherem, according to astrologers, there is some notable alteration to happen in the body, and a person is exposed to great danger of death. The word comes from «λίμαντή», derived from «λημάς, a Indder or stars. The first elimacteric is, according to some, the seventh year. The others are multiples of the first, as, 11, 21, &c. 63 and 84 are called the grand climacterics, and the dangers attending these periods are supposed to be great. Some held, according to this doctrine, every seventh year a chinacteric; others allowed this title only to the product of the multiplication of the chmacterical space by an odd number, as 3, 5, 7, 9. Others considered every

ninth year as a climacteric. The idea of climacterics is very ancient.

The ancients denoted by CLIMATE. this name the spaces between the imaginary circles, parallel to the equator, drawn in such a meanier over the surface of the earth, that the longest day in each circle is half an hour longer than in the preced-, mg. According to this division, there were twenty-four climates from the equator, where the longest day is 12 hours, to the polar circle, where it is 24 hours. From the polar circle, the longest day increases so rapidly, that, only one degree nearer the pole, it is a month long. The frigid zones, so called, that is, the regions extending from the northern and southern polar circles to the corresponding poles, some geographers have divided again into six climates. We have learned from a more accurate acquaintance with different countries, that heat or cold depends not merely on geographical latitude, but that local causes also produce great variations from the general rule, by which a region lying near the equator should always be warmer than one remote from it. By the word *climate*, therefore, we understand the character of the weather peculiar to every country, as respects heat and cold, humidity and dryness, fertility, and the alternation of the seasons. The nature of a climate is different according to the different causes which affect it, and the observations bitherto made have led, as yet, to no defi-In general, however, geonne result. graphical latitude is the principal circumstance to be taken into view fit considering the climate of a country. The highest degree of heat is found under the equator, and the lowest, or the greatest degree of cold, under the poles. The temperature of the intermediate regions is various, according to their position and local circumstances. Under the line, the heat is not uniform. In the sandy deserts of Africa, particularly on the western coast, also in Arabia and India, it is excessive. In the mountainous regions of South America, on the contrary, it is very moderate. The greatest heat in Africa is estimated at 70° of Réaumur, or 1894° of Fahrenheit. The greatest degree of cold at the poles cannot be determined, because no one has ever penetrated to them. The greatest altitude of the sun at noon, and the time of its continuance above the horizon, depends altogether on the latitude. Without regard to local circumstances, a country is warmer in proportion as the sun's altitude is greater and the day longer. The elevation of any region above the

surface of, the sea has likewise an important influence on the chimate. But the nature of the surface is not to be disregarded... The heat increases as the soil. becomes cultivated. Thus, for the last thousand years, Germany has been growing gradually warmer by the destruction of forests, the draining of lakes, and the drying up of bogs and marshes. A similar consequence of cultivation seems to be apparent in the cultivated parts of North America, particularly in the Atlantic states. The mass of minerals, which ' composes the highest layer of a country, has, without doubt, an influence on its temperature. Barren sands admit of a much more intense heat than loam. Meadow lands are not so warm in summer as the bare ground.\* The winds, to .. which a country is most exposed by its situation, have a great influence on the If north and east winds blow frequently in any region, it will be colder, the latitude being the same, than another, which is often swept by unider breezes from the south and west. The influence of the wind on the temperature of a country is very apparent in regions on the sea-coast. The difference in the extremes of temperature is least within the tropics. The heat, which would be intolerable when the sun is in the zenith, is mitigated by the rainy season, which then When the sun returns to commences. the opposite half of the torrid zone, so that its rays become less vertical, the weather is delightful. Lima and Quito, in Peru, have the finest climate of any part of the earth. The variations in temperature are greater in the temperate zones, and merease as you approach the polar circles. The heat of the higher latitudes, especially about 59° and 60°, amounts, in July, to 75° or 80° of Fahrenheit, and is greater than that of countries 10° nearer the equator. In Greenland, the heat in

\* The cultivation of a new country is often attended by most disastrous consequences, which ought not, always, to be imputed to the improvidence of colonists. The new soil, the moment that it is broken up by the plough, and penetrated by the rays of the sun, must necessarily undergo a strong evaporation, and its exhalations, which are not always of a harmless kind, little elevated in the air, are condensed by the cold, which still continues toabe sharp, particularly during the night. Hence, arise those epidemic maladies which rayage colonies newly established. The destriction of forests when carried too far, is followed by permicious effects. In the Cape de Verd islands, it is the burning of the forests which has dried up the sprugs, and rendered the atmosphere sultry. Persia, li-aly, Greece, and many other countries, have thus been deprived of their delightful chimates.

suffermer is so great that it melts the pitch on the vessels. At Tomen, in Lapland, where the sun's rays fall as obliquely, at "the summer solstice, as that do in Germany at the equinox, the hear is sometimes equal to that of the torrid zone, because the am is almost always above the horizon. I nder the poles, the climate is, . perhaps, the most uniform. A greater degree of cold than any we are accus--torned to, seems to reign there perpetually. Even in midsummer, when the sun does inot go down for a long time (at the poles not for six months), the ice never thans. The immense masses of it, which surfround the poles, feel no sensible effect from the oblique and feeble beams of the sun, and seem to increase in magnitude every year. This is very remarkable; for there is the most undoubted evidence that these now deserted countries were, in former ages, minibited. But, within a few years, large portions of this continent (if we may so call it) of ice have separated, and floated down to southern sees. This led the English government to adopt the project of penetrating to the north pole. Captains Ross and Parry, one after the other, have sailed as far as possible into the arcue ocean. (See North Polar Expeditions.)

From the general division of America into lofty mountainous plateaus and very low plains, there results a contrast between two climates, which, although of an extremely different nature, are in almost immediate proximity. Peru, the valley of Quito, and the city of Mexico, though situated between the tropics, owe to their elevation the general temperature of spring. They behold the paramos, or mountain ridges, covered with snow, which continues upon some of the summits almost the whole year, while, at the distance of a few leagues, an intense and often sickly degree of lesit suffocates the inhabitants of the posts of Vera Cruz and of Gliayaquil. These two climates produce each a different system of vegetation. The flora of the torrid zone forms a border to the helds and groves of Europe. Such a remarkable proximity as this cannot fail of frequently occasioning sudden changes, by the displacement of these two masses of air, so differently constituted—a general meonvenience, experienced over the whole of America. Every where, however, this continent is subject to a lower degree of heat than the same latitudes in the eastern portion of the earth. Its elevation alone explains this fact, as far as re-

it may be saked, is the same thing finds of the great observer, Alexander Humboldt. in his Tableaux de la Yature, ninken the following reply: "The comparative nexrowness of this continent; its clongetti towards the icy poles; the ocean, whole unbroken surface is swept by the trade winds; the currents of extremely cold water which flow from the straits of Magellan to Peru; the numerous chains of mountains, abounding in the sources of a rivers, and whose summits, covered with snow, rise far above the region of the clouds; the great number of manense rivers, that, after innumerable curves, always tend to the most distant shores; deserts, but not of sand, and consequently less susceptible of being impregnated with heat; impenetrable forests, that spread over the plans of the equator, abounding in rivers, and which, in those parts of the country that are the farthest distant from mountains. and from the ocean, give rise to enormous. masses of water, which are either attracted by them, or are formed during the act of vegetation,--all these causes produce, in the lower parts of America, a climate which, from us coolness and humality, is singukerly contrasted with that of Africa. To: these causes alone must we ascribe that abundant vegetation, so vigorous and so eich in pinces, and that thick and umbra-'geons foliage, which constitute the characteristic features of the new continent." To these remarks Malte-Brun adds (Univerent Geography, vol. v. book fixv): " Assurang this explanation as tufficient for South America and Mexico, we shall add, with regard to North America, that it searcely extends any distance into the tornd zone, but, on the contrary, stretches, in all prebability, very far into the frield zone; and, unless the revived hope of a, north-west passage be confirmed, may, perhaps, reach and surround the pole itself. Accordingly, the column of faozen air attached to this confinent is no where counterbalanced by a column of equatorial air. From this results an extension of the polar climate to the very confined : of the tropies; and hence winter and summer struggle for the ascendency, and the seasons change with astonishing rapidity. From all this, however, New Albion and New California are happily exempt; for, being placed beyond the reach of freezing winds, they enjoy a temperature analogous to their latitude." (For further information, see Malte-Brun's Universal Geography, book Avii, and the gards the mountainous region; but why, article Hind. Respecting the climate of

ures; in the former of which the his in degree; in the letter, they sink: happy; des i

mountains one in Arabia Felix; another in Pinidia; mother in Phoenicia; also of a castle in Galatia; also of a place in Pelopenmesus, and another in Libya.

CLINGSTONE. (See Peach.)

CLINICAL MEDICINE (from the Greek Adam, a bed) teaches us to investigate, at the hed-side of the sick, the true nature of the disease in the phenomena presented; to note their course and termination; and to study the effects of the various modes of treatment to which they are subjected. From this mode of study we learn the character of individual cases; theoretical study being competent to make us acquainted with species only. medicine demands, therefore, careful obrervation. It is, in fact, synonymous with experience. What advances would medicine have made, and from how many errors would it have been saved, if public instruction had always followed this natural course, so that pupils had received none but correct impressions and distinct conceptions of the phenomena of diserse, and had attained a practical knowledge of the application of those rules and precepts, which dogmatical instruction always leaves indefinite! We are unacquainted with the method of clinical instruction in medicine, which was followed by the Asclepiades, but we cannot help admiring the results of it as exhibited to us in the writings of Hippocrates, who augmented. the stores of experience inherited from them, by following in their steps. After his time, medicine ceased to be the property of particular families, and the path of experience, by which it had been rendered so valuable, was soon descreed. The slow progress of anatomy and physiology; the constant study of the philosophy of Aristotle, and endless disputes respecting the nature of man, of diseases, and of remedies, occupied all the attention of phyricians; and the wise method of observing and describing the discoses themselves fell into disuse. Hospitals, at their origin, served rather as means of displaying the servedence of the early Christians than of perfecting the study of medicine. The school of Alexandria was so celebrated, decording to Ammianus Marcellinus, that that clinical instruction was given, at the a careful attendance upon its lessons entitled the sudent to pursue the practice Vienna and Strasburg. Even Boarhaava. VOL. HI.

united with these medical install. The last school, founded by the gray Aurelian, and supprintended by Greek physicians, spread the doctrings of Hip-pocrates through all the East. It, was, supported for several commiss, and in it, without doubt, Rhazes, Ah-Abbas, Avieguna, and the other celebrated Arthian phy-At the same sicious, were instructed. time, the celebrated John Mesue, of Da-mascus, was at the head of the hospital of Bagdad. Of the mode of instruction pursued there, we know nothing; but we are inclined to form no very elevated opinion of the systems of an age which was devoted to all the dreams of Atabian polypharmacy. In truth, medicine shared the fate of all the other natural sciences in there barbarous ages. Men were little disposed to acquire, slowly and cautiously, the knowledge of disease, at the bedside of ... the sick, in the manner of the Greek phy-It appears probable, that the SICIADS. foundation of universities led to a renewed attention to the study of medical science; and we find, accordingly, that in Spain, even under the dominion of the Arabians, . there were schools and hospitals for the instruction of young physicians at Seville, Toledo and Cordova. But, even then, clinical studies were almost wholly neglected. < Instead of studying the history of diseases, ". the pupils occupied their time with the most unprofitable pursuits. Not much more advantageous were the journeys which were made for the same objects to Italy and France, in the 11th and 12th The schools of Paris and centuries. Montpellier were those principally resorted to; but in these, the instruction consisted simply in lectures and endless commentaries upon the most obscure subjects; and, even at the close of the 15th century, when the works of the Greek physicians began ... to be printed, men were still busied with ... verbul explanations and disputes. Two centuries elapsed before physicians returned to clinical studies and instructions. Among the renovators of this mode of studying medicine may be named, in Holland, William von Straten, Otho Heurnius, and the celebrated Sylvius, about the middle of the 17th century; and it is said same period, in the schools of Hamburg,

who discovered Sylvins as clinical instrucand it is regard polycimic, when the inter of Leyden, in 1714, has left us no jourstructure and it is regard, when the inter of daily observation of disease, but
heds of the sick.

Chitron, sir Henry, an English geneval, served in the Hanoverian war, and for this celebrated school was first perpeived at Edinburgh, and afterwards at

Light and the regard in the Hanoverian war, and for the distribution of major-general, where he distributed himself in the battle of Russian. ceived at Edinburgh, and afterwards at Vienna, two schools which, in celebrity for clinical instruction, soon eclipsed their common mother, the school of Leyden. Cullen, one of the most celebrated teachers of practical medicine at Edinburgh, was too fond of fine-spun theories upon the condition of the diseased structures of the body, and the proximate causes of disease, ever to follow a uniform method in his lectures, and to adopt the entire history of disease, as observed at the bedside, as the basis of his system. From the account of what was effected in clinical medicine in Italy, Germany and France, in the course of the 18th century, we may discover Both the constantly increasing attention to this de-partment of knowledge, and the difficulties with which such institutions are obliged to contend. The Vienna school, by means of the labors of Van Swieten, De Haen, and, still more, of Stoll and of Franck, became a model of clinical study, since public lectures were given in the hospitals, and the simplicity of Grecian medicine successfully inculcated. practice and study of medicine, in the hospitals in France, was only an indirect mode of gaining public confidence, till the period of the general revival of science, and the erection of the French Ecole de In that, for the first time, clinical instruction was expressly commanded. At the present day, every good school has its establishment for clinical medicine connected with it; that is, an hospital, in which diseases can be seen and studied by those attending it. In Germany, the empirical or experimental mode of studying medicine was early given up for the more scientific form of lectures; while in England and France, the opposite extreme took place, and students were carried, as they sometimes are still, to the bedside of the sick, before they had been properly grounded in elementary studies. In Germany, there are very numerous journals, which contain clinical reports of cases, as "there are so many clinical institutions appropriated to particular classes of disease. In the American schools, clinical matrucfon is almost wholly overlooked, although "some slight lectures of this description are given by the physicians of hospitals,-'The clinical school is called ambulatory, when the patients attend only at particular hours;

guished himself in the battle of Bunker hill. He was soon after sent against New York and Charleston, but without success. In a second attempt on New York, he entered the city, after having defeated the Americans on Long Island. Being appointed to the command of that station for the purpose of favoring the movements of general Burgoyne, his attempts were rendered ineffectual by the surrender of that general at Saratoga. In 1778, he succeeded Howe in the command at Philadelphia, which Washington obliged him to evacuate. In 1779, he obtained pos-session of Charleston. His connexion with Arnold (q. v.), his attempt to seduce the American troops by the offer of making up their arrears of pay, and his boast that there were more American royalists in the pay of the British king than there were solchers in the army of Washington. illustrate the system of corruption then adopted by the British generals in Amer-In 1782, Clinton returned to England, having been superseded by general Carleton. He died in 1795. His Narrative of his conduct in America (1782), was answered by lord Cornwallis; to whom Clinton replied in Observations on Lord Cornwallis's answer (1783). was also the author of Observations on Stedman's History of the American War (1784).

CLINTON, James, the fourth son of colonel Charles Clinton, was born, Aug. 9, 1736, at the residence of his father, in Ulster county, New York. He received an excellent education, and acquired much proficiency in the exact sciences; but his ruling inclination was for a military life. He was appointed an ensign in the second regiment of the militia of Ulster county, by sir Charles Hardy, the governor, and rose to the rank of lieutenant-colonel in the same regiment, before the commencement of the revolution. During the war of 1756, between the English and French, he displayed much courage, and particularly distinguished himself at the capture of fort Frontenac, where he was a captain. under colonel Bradstreet, and rendered essential service by taking a sloop of war on lake Ontario, which obstructed the advance of the army. The confidence which was reposed in his character may

the French war, Mr. Clinton married Miss Mary de Witt, and retired from the army to private life. enjoy repose. appointed, by the continental congress, colonel of the third regiment of New York forces, the American revolution being then on the eve of commencement. In the same year, he marched with Montgomery to Quebec; and, in 1777, having been previously promoted to the rank of brigadier-general in the army of the U. States, commanded at fort Clinton, when it was attacked by sir Henry Clinton, in order to create a diversion in favor of general Burgoyne. After a gallant defence, fort Clinton, as well as fort Montgomery, of both of which his brother George, the governor, was commander-in-chief, were carried by storm. General Clinton was the last man to leave the works: but he escaped with a severe wound, and reached his house covered with blood. An expedition, soon after, having been planned to chastise the Iroquois on the frontier Attlements, on account of some atrocities of which they had been guilty, the chief command was given to general Sullivan, who was ordered to proceed up the Susquehannah, while general Clinton was to join him by the way of the Mohawk. The junction was successfully accom-plished, and, after one engagement, in which the Indians were defeated with great loss, all resistance ceased on their part, and, desolation being brought into their settlements, they fled to the British fortress of Niagara, where they died in great numbers, in consequence of living on salt provisions, to which they were unaccustomed. By this one blow, an end was put to their incursions and cruelties. During a considerable part of the war, general Clinton was stationed at Albany, where he commanded. He was at the siege of Yorktown, and here his conduct was marked by his usual intrepidity. He made his last appearance in arms on the evacuation of the city of New York by the British, when he bade an affectionate farewell to the commander-in-chief, and retired to his ample estates. He did not, however, enjoy uninterrupted repose, but

be estimated by his appointment as captering the country of the four regiments perfectively duties, such as those of a
levied for the protection of the western commissioner to adjust the boundary line. The formers of the country of lines are the safety of a line of settlements of at the safety of a line of settlements of at the safety of a line of settlements of at the safety of a line of settlements of at the safety of a line of settlements of at the safety of a line of settlements of at the safety of a line of settlements of at the safety of a line of settlements of at the safety of a line of settlements of at the safety of a line of settlements of at the safety of a line of settlements of at the safety of a line of settlements of at the safety of a line of settlements of at the safety of a line of settlements of at the safety of a line of settlements of at the safety of a line of settlements of at the safety of a line of settlements of at the safety of the legislature, and of the constitution of the U. States, and of a sentimental of the lines of the legislature, and of the constitution of the U. States, and of a sentlement of the U. States, and of

energy: In battle, he was calm and collected. He died Dec. 22, 1812.

CLINTON, George, the youngest son of colonel Charles Clinton, was born July 15, 1739, in Orange (then Ulster) county, New York Colonel Charles (then Ulster) county, New York Charles (then Ulster) county, New York Charles (the Ulster) county, New York Charles (the Ulster) county of the Charles (the Ulster) county. York. His education was superintended ... by his father, a gentleman of a highly cultivated mind, assisted by a minister of the gospel, named Daniel Thain, who had been educated at the university of Aberdeen. He evinced, at an early age, that', spirit of activity and enterprise which marked his after-life. During what was called the French war, he left his father's house, and entered on board of a privateer, which sailed from the port of News York; and, after encountering great hardships and perils, returned home, and immediately accepted a lieutenancy in a company commanded by his brother James. He was present at the capture of fort Frontenac, now Kingston, where the company to which he belonged behaved with great gallantry. After the usual time of study, he was admitted to the bar, and practised with much success in his native county, until his election to the colonial assembly, where he became the head of the whig party, or minority, and uniformly opposed the arbitrary course of the government. April 22, 1775, he was chosen a delegate to the continental congress; and, in 1776, he was also appointed brigadier-general of the militia of Ulster county, and, some time after, a brigadier in the army of the U. States. At the first election under the constitution of the state, which was adopted at New York, April 20, 1777, he was chosen both governor and lieutenant-governor. Having accepted the former office, the latter was filled by Pierre van Cortlandt. He continued in the chief magistracy of the state during six terms, or 18 years, when he declined a reelection. In consequence of the great number of tories who resided in the state of New York, and its distracted condition, the situation of governor Clinton was more arduous and important than any other in the Union, save that of the

cumulation in chief. He, inveyer, be nogatived, in private life, he was kind away with the greatest energy and intre- and amigble, and warm in his friendships and the militia; and, for a long full remembrance.

CLINTON, De Witt, was born, March 2 Tribish army, commanded by sir Henry 1769, at Little Britain, in Orange country Clinton. By a vigorous exertion of au. New York. He was of English orights. important occasion, he preserved the army from dissolution. His conduct at the \* From dissolution. His conduct at the storming of forts Montgomery and Clinton, in October, 1777, was particularly praise-worthy. He was greatly instrumental in crushing the insurrection under Stuys, which took place in Massachusetts in 1787. Governor Clinton was unanimously chosen president of the convention which assembled at Poughkeep-, sie, June 17, 1788, to deliberate on the new foderal constitution. After remain-, ing five years in private life, he was elected a member of the state legislature, at a · time when the country was in an agreated. and critical condition, and it is affirmed that his influence was the principal cause of the great political revolution which tank place in 1801. At that period, he was also induced to accept again the station of governor, and, after continuing in that capacity for three years, he was elevated to the vice-presidency of the U. States, a dignity which he returned until his demise at Washington, April 20, 1812. He married Cornelia Tappan, of Kingston, Ulster county, by whom he had one son and five daughters, of whom but two daughters are still living. The following discodotes are related of his energy and decision :- " At the conclusion of the revolutionary war, when violence against the tories was the order of the day, a British officer was placed on a cart in the city of New York, to be tarred and feathered. This was the signal of violence and assassination. Governor Clinton, at this moment, rushed in among the mob with a drawn sword, and rescued the victim at the risk of his life." "Some years afterwards, a furious assemblage of people collected, 'called the doctors' mob, and raged through New York, with the intention of killing the physicians of that city, and pulling down their houses, on account of their having dug up bodies for dissection. The violence of this mob intimidated the local magistracy. Governor Clinton for-timately appeared in person, called out the militia, and restored peace to the city." He discharged the functions of vice-president with great dignity. It was by the casting vote, whilst in that station, that the renewal of the bank charter was

thority in the impressment of flour on an . His father served with great distinction during the revolutionary war, and became a major-general in the army of the U. States. His mother was a De Witt, a member of the distinguished Dutch family of that name. Her parents had emigrated to America. He was educated at Columbin college, where he highly distinguished himself. He then commenced reading law with the late honorable Samuel Jones, and, in due time, was admitted to the bar. But before he was able to acquire any practice of importance, he was appointed private secretary to his uncle George Clinton, and continued in this office until the end of his relative spidministration, in 1785. In the interim, he had been chosen secretary to the board of regents of the university, and to the board of fortifica-tions of New York. In 1797, Mr. Clinton was elected a member of the legislature of New York, at the time when the two greet parties, which have since divided the country, were organized, and embraced the republican or democratic side. In 1800, he was classen by the council of appointment, of which body he was a member, to support their cause in a controversy between them and governor Jay. This was finally settled by a convention, which met at Albany, in 1801, when the constitution of New York was modified in various ways. The same year, he was chosen a member of the senate of the Union, in order to supply the vacancy occasioned by the resignation of general Armstrong, and continued a member of that body for two sessions. After that period, he was chosen mayor of New York, and remained in this situation, with the intermission of but two years, until 1815, when he was obliged to retue, in consequence of the violence of party polities. In 1817, he was elected, almost unanimously, governor of the state; the two great parties having combined for the purpose of raising him to that dignity-so high was the general sense of his talents and services. This harmony continued until the distribution of offices, when, of course, discontent was excited, and at that time commenced a systematic opposition. to his administration. He was reflected, however, in 1820, notwithstanding the great exercious of the opposite party, who

had induced Daniel D. Tompkins, then tremely abasious, every moment which vice-president, and, from his popularity in the could space from his necessary duties has native state, emphatically termed the being devoted to the cultivation of his native state, to become his opponint, mind, No one was ever more emphaticus; mine of the people, to become his opponint, mind, No one was ever more emphaticus. man of the people, to become his opponent.

After his reflection, great resistance was made to his measures; but, fortunately, the canal scheme, of which Mr. Clinton was one of the prime movers and most efficient advocates, had been so firmly established, that it was secure from attack. improvement, notwithstanding the vio-lence with which he was assailed; but in life. In 1810, Mr. Clinton had been appointed, by the senate of his state, one of the board of canal commissioners; but the displeasure of his political opponents, who were, at that time, greatly predominant in the legislature, was excited by the enthusiasm evinced in his favor at the canal celebration, in October, 1823, at Albany, and they deprived him of his office. This act, however, for which no reason could be assigned, occasioned a complete reaction of the public feeling towards him. to escape, but again brought him forward as a candidate for the office of governor, and carried him, by a most triumphant majority, over colonel Young. In 1826, he was again elected, by a large majority, over judge Rochester; but he died before this term was completed. His decease was in consequence of a catarrhal affection of the throat and chest, which, being · neglected, occasioned a fatal disease of the heart. He expired almost instantaneously, whilst sitting in his library, after dinner, Feb. 11, 1828. His son was writing near him, and, on being informed by him of a sense of oppression and stricture across his breast, immediately called in medical aid; but before the physician could arrive, his father was no more. The next day, business was suspended in The public testimonials of respect paid to his memory, throughout the state and Union, were almost numberless. His body was interred with every honor. Mr. Clinton was tall, finely proportioned, and of a commanding aspect. In his domestic and social relations, he was cheerful and kind; in his friendships, warm and sincere; and in his moral character, unex--ceptionable. His manners were rather distant and reserved, in consequence of long habits of abstraction, and a natural diffidence, of which he never could divest himself. He was an early riser, and ex-

of a reputation for science and literature. In some of the physical sciences he was especially versed, and his proficiency as a classical and belles lettres acholar was very considerable. He was a member of a large part of the literary and scientific Having nothing to fear for this favorite. institutions of the U. States, and an honobject, he proceeded in his plans of public orary member of many of the learned improvement, notwithstanding the vio-societies of Great Britain and the conti-1822, he declined offering himself again • ment of Europe. His productions are nuses a candidate, and retired into private, state legislature and in the constant of the const state legislature and in the senate of the Union, his speeches and messages as governor; his discourses before various literary, philosophical and benevolent institutions; his addresses to the army during the late war; his communications concerning the canal; and his judicial opinions; besides various fugitive pieces. As a public character, he is entitled to durable renown. His national services were of the greatest importance; the Erie canal, especially, although his title to the meris of being the originator of the project may be disputed, , His friends did not suffer the opportunity swill always remain a monument of his patriotism and perseverance. He was, also, a promoter and benefactor of many He was, religious and charitable institutions. In the performance of judicial duties, which he was called upon to discharge whilst mayor, and as a member of the court of errors, the highest judicial tribunal of New York, his learning and ability have received unqualified encomium. As a magistrate, he was firm, vigilant, dignified, and of incorruptible integrity. From none of his official stations did he derive any peruniary benefit, though he had often opportunities of acquiring affluence. As an orator, he was forcible and manly, Mr. Clinton. though not very graceful. was twice married. His first wife was Miss Maria Franklin, the daughter of an eminent merchant of New York, by whom he had seven sons and three daughters; of whom four sons and two daughters. survive. His second wife was Miss Catharine Jones, the daughter of the late doctor Thomas Jones of New York, a lady of great excellence.

CLIO; daughter of Jupiter and Mnemosyne; the muse of glory and history. Her attributes are, a wreath of laurel upon her head, a trumpet in her right hand, and a roll of papyrus in her left. ,(See Mythology, Greek.

CLITUS; son of Dropis, and brother of ... Hellanice, the nurse of Alexander the

22 \*

connection of some irritating words. After e as performed, he was perietrated with the bitterest remoise.

"Curre, Catharme, & celebrated comicactress, was the daughter of a gentleman named Raftor, and was born in the north of Ireland, in 1711. When young, she was married to Mr. Richard Clive, a barrister; but the union was unfortunate, and, a separation taking place, she adopted the theatrical profession, in which she attained a distinguished rank. She filled and adorded a variety of 'comic parts; and, whether she exhibited the woman of good sense, of real fine breeding, the humorous, the fantastic, the affected, the ride, the awkward, or the ridiculous female, in any rank of society, she was sure to fascinate the audience; though her talents were peculiarly adapted to scenes of low life. Her lively, playful humor is exemplified by the following theatrical anecdote: -She performed at Drury lane theatre under the management of Garrick. One night, while playing the lady in Lethe, Mrs. Clive, in turning her head towards the stage-box, chanced to encounter the eve of Charles Townshend. That political wit pointed instantly to an old belle on his left, a very cariceture of the ridiculous dame she was portraying on the stage. actress paused for a mement, and burst into laughter. The galleries caught the jest, and joined boisterously in the mirth, clapping loudly with their hands at the same time. Mrs. Clive at length retired. from the stage, of which she had been long a distinguished ornament, and passed the latter part of her life at Little Strawherry hill, near the Chithic villa of Horace Walpole, who, as well as many other perstons of rank and eminence, courted her society, attracted by the wit and drollery with which she culivened her domestic circle. Her death occurred in 1785.

CLIVE, Robert, lord Clive and baron of Places, was born in 1725, in Shropshire. Lie was sent to several school, but to little purpose, and was said, by all his nusters, to be the most unlucky boy in their schools. Fig father obtained for him the place of a writer in the Flast India company's servine, and, in his 19th year, he went in that estimetty to Madras. In 1747, he quitted the civil employment, and entered into the M Gara

He was one of the generals of military service, for which nature his so his and Alexander, and saved the life, popularly street him. During two years, The latter in the battle of the Gamicus, public events give him little opportunity the latter in the battle of the Gamicus, public events give him little opportunity the country of the hand of Rhossics, who to distinguish himself; but, when the Englished first liftled his arm to kill Alexander. lish thought proper to engage as attributed to the reign of the proper in the proper in the reign of the proper in the attack one of his forts named Devi Come in which service Clive acted with great bravery, and was, soon-after, appointed commissary to the British troops. About this time, M. Duplelx, taking part with a candidate for the subabidup of the Carnatic, succeeded in placing him on the throne, on condition of raising Chundaen heb to the naboliship of Arcot. By this proceeding, he gained a large grant of ter-ritory for the French, and the collection of all the revenues in that quarter of the Hundoo empire. The estentation and insolence with which they afterwards conducted themselves roused the indignation. of the English, a body of whom, under the command of Clive, made an attack. upon the city of Arcot, the boldness of which measure can-ed it to succeed; and, ' after a most complete victory, he returned to Madras, and, in 1753, sailed to England for the recovery of his health. A diamond-inited sword was voted to him by the East India company, which he only accepted upon condition that colonel Laurence, who had similarly distinguished lumself in the action, should receive a like present. He was also presented with the government of St. David's, with the right of succession to that of Madras, and a lietttenant commel's commission in the kung's service. After a successful attack on the prate Angria, in conjunction with admirals Pocock and Watson, he repaired to bt. David's, but was soon called to Madras, to command the succors sent to Bengal, where the nabob Furajah Dowlah had attacked the English, destroyed their factories, taken Calcutta, and suffocated several of his prisoners in the black hole. Colonel Clive proceeded to Calcutta, and, driving out the enemy, took possession of the city, and, with a very inferior number of men, cutered the nabob's camp, and seized his campan; which nlarmed him so much, that lie offered terms which were adjusted much to the advantage of the company. The state of things rendering it impossible for this peace to last long, colonel Clive formed the project of dethrouing the mabob, the execution of which was confided to Mr. Watts and himself; and one of the nabob's officers, named Meer Jaffier, joined them on condition of succeeding to his master's 

A Gented instellant, marted but in consequence of the planeful mo-was engaged to carry on the nopoles and unsuperiors of the Eiglish dence between Jaffier and the unders, the new nabob declared the trade correspondence between Jaffier and the English; but, demanding a high sum for. his services, a double treaty was drawn up, sequence, assolved to depose him, and se in one of which his demand was inserted; store Meer Jaffier; and, after a temporeand both were signed; and the first only faith of the English, performed his part." fidelity and join his army; and the famous troops there; and, in July, 1764, he return-hattle of Plassey ensued, in which, by ed to India, being first created a knight of comparatively a small body of troops, the nabob and his army were put to flight, and the company's success decided. To the deep disgrace of colonel Clive and the English, on the affair being decided, Om-ichand was informed that "the red paper was a trick, and he was to have nothing. The disappointment drove him mad, and, a year and a half after, he died in a state the signature of admiral Watson, who was too honest to sign the paper, was a for-gery. The new nabob, Meer Jaffer, who had come over at the close of the action, and had presented Clive with £210,000, now wished to govern without the interference of the English; but, three rebelsolicit their aid, and colonel Clive suppressed two, but made a compromise with would be a check upon the nabob's becoming too powerful. He was next appointed governor of Calcutta; and, soon after, a large force arrived at Bengah on pretence of being sent to reenforce the garrisons belonging to the Dutch company. Susperting that they were invited by the nabob, to destroy the English power, he attacked them, both by sea and land, with great success, capturing all their forces, and drawing up a treaty, signed by the Dutch, who agreed to pay all expenses, on the restitution of their property. For these services, he was created, by the great Mogul, an omralı of the empire, and received a grant of a revenue, amounting to £28.000 per annum from Meer Jaffier. He then again returned to England, where his success was much applauded, without much inquiry as to the means; and, in 1761, he was raised to the Irish peerage, by the title of lord Clive, baron of Plassey. He had not, however, been long in England, before a disagreement took place between Meer Jaffier and Mr. Holwell, who then officiated as governor, which ended in transferring the nabobship from the for-

of the country free for all. It was, in con ry success, he was obliged to take splings shown to Omichand, who, trusting to their with the naboh of Ouds. On the news of these commissions reaching England, The naboh, suspecting what was going the company appointed lord Cave press-forward, commanded Meer Jaffier to swear dent of Bengal, with the command of the ed to India, being first created a knight of Before his arrival, major Adthe Bath. ams had defeated the nabob of Oude, Sujah-ul-Dowlah, and obliged him to sue for peace; so that lord Clive had only to settle terms of agreement with the country powers, which he did to the great advantage. of the company, who acquired the dispo-sal of all the revenues of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa. In 1767, he finally returned of idiocy. It should also be noticed, that to England, being the chief contributor to; the immense possessions of the East India company. In 1773, a motion, supported by the minister, was made in the house of commons, "that, in the acquisition of his wealth, lord Clive had abused the powers with which he was intrusted." charges brought forward in support of this lions rising against him, he was obliged to motion had a very serious aspect, but, with solicit their aid, and colonel Clive sup-the assistance of Mr. Wedderburne, be maile such a defence, that it was rejected, the third competitor, whom he thought and a resolution passed, "that lord Clive had wendered great and meritorious services to his country," which, however, was no contradiction to the motion. From that time, his broken health, and probably his injured peace of mind, rendered him a prey to the most gloomy depression of spirits, under the morbid influence of which he put an end to his life and sufferings, at the age of 50, in November, 1774. A physiognoriust would scarcely havebeen favorable to lord Clive, who possessed a remarkably heavy brow, which gave a close and sullen expression to his features; and he was, indeed, of a reserved temper, and very silent; but, nevertheless, among his intimate friends, could be lively and pirosant. He was always self-directed, and secret in his decisions, but inspired those under his command with the utmost confidence, owing to his great bravery and presence of mind. Lord Chatham characterized him as a "heaven-born general, who, without experience, surpassed all the officers of his time." His talents, in fact, were as great as his political morality was disputable; and, as in the case of Warren Hastings, the services done to his country mer to his son-in-law Cossim-Ally-Khan; have paralyzed the disposition to investigravitoo hicely into the character of them. from Harbun al Raschid in 809, to the whole member of parliament from 1760 which small bells were attached, and in exceedingly liberal. He married the sister of the late astronomer-royal, doctor Maskelyne, by whom he had two sons and three daughters.

CLOACE; subterranean works in Rome, of stupendous size and strength, constructed in the time of the Tarquins, for conducting off the overflowings of the Tiber, , the waters from the hills, and the filth of the city. The cloaca maxima, or principal branch, received numerous other branches, between the Capitoline, Palatine and Quirinal hills. It has stood nearly 2500 years, surviving the earthquakes which have shaken down the palaces, churches and towers of the superincumbent city, and still stands as firmly as on the day of its foundation. It is formed of three concen-. tric rows of enormous stones, piled above each other without cement. The height, inside, is 18 Roman palms, and the width

about the same. CLOCK. For many inventions which do honor to the human mind, we are indebted to the monks of the middle ages, who, in their seclusion, free from the necessity of providing for their support, employed the time during which they were not engaged in their devotions in the practice of various arts, both useful and useless. Among the inventions which we owe to them are clocks, or time-keepers, which are set in motion by wheels, pendulums and steel springs. The word horologium was in use, even among the ancients; and it might almost be inferred, from many expressions, that they possessed instruments similar to our pocketwatches and chamber-clocks. It is, however, certain, that their time-pieces were sun-dials, hour-glasses, and clepsydra . The latter Julius Casar brought with him from Great Britain. It was a clepsydra which Cassiodorus, in the 6th century, recommended to his monks, when a cloudy sky prevented them from bisorving their suhdials. The gournand, Trimalchio, described by Petronius, libit a clepsydra in his dining-room, and placed a trumpeter near it to announce the liques. Vitruvius mentions an Alexandrian artist, who, 140 years before our era, combined springwheels with the clepsydra; thut the account is too confused and incomplete to afford a correct idea of its construction. In an old chronicle, it is related that Charlemagne received a clock (see Automata)

to his death, but seldom spoke; though; which figures of horsemen, at the hour of when roused, he could display great clo- twelve, came forth through little doors; quience. In private life, he was kind and, and retired again. There is a more exact description of this work of art in the Franconian annals, attributed to Eginhard, in which it is particularly said to have been. a clepsydra, and that, at the end of each. hour, little balls of metal fell upon a bell, and produced a sound. It is not probable that the clock which Pacificus, arch-deacon of Verona, is said to have invented in the 9th century, could have been equal to our present clocks. The words on his tomb are so indistinct that nothing positive car be inferred from them. The dis covery of clocks has likewise been attributed to the famous Gerbert of Auvergne, who afterwards became pope under the name of Sylvester II, and died in 1003; but Ditmar of Merseburg, a trustworthy witness, only relates that Gerbert placed a horologium in Magdeburg for the emperor Otho, after observing, through a tube, the star which guides the seamen. must have been a sun-dial, which Gerbert placed according to the height of the pole. In the 12th century, clocks were made use of in the monasteries, which announced the end of every hour by the sound of a bell, put in motion by means of wheels. From this time forward, the expression "the clock has struck" is often met with. The band for marking the time is also made mention of. Of William, abbot of Hirschau, his biographer relates, that he invented a horologium similar to the celestial hemisphere. Short as this ar count is, it still appears probable that this ablot was the inventor of clocks, as he employed a person particularly in arranging his work, and keeping it in or-This abbot died at the end of the 11th century. In the 13th century, there is again mention of a clock, given by sultan Saladin' to the emperor Frederic, II. This was evidently put in motion by weights and wheels. It not only marked the hours, but also the course of the sun, of the moon, and the planets in the zodiac. It is hardly probable that the Saracens learned the art of clock-making from the monks of European monasteries: perhaps, on the contrary, they were the real inventors of it, and the invention was made known to Europeans by means of the crusades. In the 14th century, there are stronger traces of the present system of clock-work. Dante particularly mentions clocks. Richard, abbot of St. Alban's in England, made a clock, in 1826,

wise, were first made use of in the 14th century. Perhaps Jac. Doridi, in Padua, was the first who made one of this kind; at least, his family was called, after him, dell' Orologio. A German, Henry de Wyck, was celebrated, in the same century, for a large clock which he placed in a tower built by command of Charles V, king of France. This clock was preserved till 1737. Watches are a much later invention, although they have likewise been said to have been invented as early as the 14th century. The general opinion is, that Peter Hele first contrived them in 1510. One of their names was that of Nuremberg eggs (Nurnberger Eier). cording to some accounts, the first trustworthy indications of their existence are found at the commencement of the 17th century. The pendulum (q. v.) Huygens (q. v.) invented. The honor of being the inventor of the balance-spring in watches was contested between him and the Enghsh philosopher doctor Hooke. To prevent , friction, Facio, a Genevan, invented the method of boring holes in diamonds or rubies for the pivors to revolve in, which was found a great improvement. Thus chronometers had their origin, in which the English have attained great perfection. This nation also invented repeaters. An individual of the name of Burlow first made one, in 1676, for king Charles II; and Graham was the inventor of the compensation-pendulum (q. v.), in 1715. This was perfected by Harrison, who formed the pendulum of nine round rods, five of which were of iron and four of brass. With these pendulums the astronomical clocks are still provided, and perfect dependence may be placed in the regularity of their action. Amongst the important inventions of the 18th century, the astronomical clocks of the clergyman Hahn, in Echterdugen, Würtemberg, de serve to be particularly named. (See Hahn.) He formed the idea of measuring time in its whole extent. The principal hand in his instrument is that of universal history. This turns on a table, and indicates the principal epochs of history according to the chronology of the Old Testament, and the great events of future times, according to the calculations of Bengel, founded on the Apocalypse. Its revolution embraces a period of nearly 8000 years. Another hand on this table marks the year of the century, and

such as had never been heard of till then, makes by clickly in 100 years. Still it not only indicated the course of the more remarkable is the representation of sun and the moon, but also the able and sun and the moon, but also the ebb and the mations of the planets known at the flood tide. Large clocks on steeples, like-time of the inventor, and of the systems of Ptolemy and Copernicus. They and their satellites perform their revolutions in exactly the same time as they actually do in the heavens; and these automata not only have the central motion, but their course is also eccentrical and elliptic, like that of the heavenly orbs, and the motion is sometimes slower, sometimes quicker, and even retrograde. This instrument, must have been the fruit of deep knowledge, indefatigable research, and the calculations of years. It is much to be re gretted, that the dimited means of the artist prevented his machine from being better finished, and that he was not acquainted with clock-making in its present. advanced state, and with the excellent instruments which have been invented since his time. The country where watches are manufactured in the greatest numbers is French Switzerland, particularly at Geneva, La-Chaux-de-Fonds, Locle, &c., where they, are made by thousands. Among French watch-makers, Berthoud, Breguet, Chevalier, Courvoisier, Preud'homme, and others, are distinguished. England and France have been active in perfecting the art of horology. The elegant Parisian pendulum-tlocks are well known, in which the art of the sculptor is ' combined with that of the machinist. Elegance, however, is their principal recommendation. It is much to be regretted, that the present watches, even the finest, have not the finish which gave such great durability to those of former times. This is particularly the case with French watches. We speak now of the better sort of watches; the ordinary ones are hardly worth the trifling sum which they cost. Wooden clocks are made chiefly in the Schwarzwald, or Black Forest, in South Germany, and furnish an important object of manufacture for this mountainous and barren country. It is said that 70,060 of such clocks are made there annually. Perhaps this account is exaggerated, but great numbers of the clocks are sent to North and South America, and all over Europe. chief magazine of them is at Neustadt, in Baden. (For information on the construction of clocks and watches, see the article Horology.)
CLOISTER. (See Monastery.)

CLOOTS, John Baptist von; a Prussian haron, better known, during the revolutionary scenes in France, under the appel-

lation of Anacharsis Clooks. He was born death. On the ecasfold, he begged the ample of his uncle, Cornelius Pauw, who published several popular works, inspired him with an inclination to become an author. He travelled in different parts of · Europe, and formed an acquaintance with many eminent individuals, among whom was the celebrated Edmund Burke; but the politics of that statesman did not suit the irregular and ardent disposition of Cloots, to whom the French revolution at length opened a career which he thought worthy of his ambition. first scene in which he-distinguished himself was the ridiculous masquerade called the embassy of the human race, partly coutrived by the duke de Liancourt. On the 19th of June, 1790, Cloots presented himself at the bar of the national assembly, followed by a considerable number of the porters of the French metropolis, in foreign dresses, to represent the deputies of all nations. He described himself as the orator of the human race, and demanded the right of confederation, which was granted him. At the bar of the assembly, April 21, 1792, he made a strange speech, in which he recommended a declaration of war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia, proposed that the assembly should form itself into a diet during a year, and finished by offering a patriotic gift of 12,000 livres. On the 12th of August, he went to congratulate the legislative assembly on the occurrences, of the preceding 10th, and offered to raise a Prussian legion, to be called the *Vandal* legion. The 27th of the same month, he advised the assembly to set a price on the heads of the king of Prussia and the duke of Brunswick, praised the action of John J. Ankarstræm, the assassin of the king of Sweden, and, among other absurd expressions, he said, "My heart is French, and my soul is sans-culotte." He displayed no less hatred to Christianity than to royalty, declaring himself the "personal enemy of Jesus Christ." In September. .1792, he was nominated deputy from the department of the Oise to the national convention, in which he voted for the death of Louis XVI, "in the name of the human race." This madman, becoming an object of suspicion to Robespierre and his party, was arrested, and condemned to death, March 24, 1794. He suffered with several others, and, on his way to the guillotine, he discoursed to his companions on materialism and the contempt of

ex Cleves, in 1755, and became possessed executioner to decapitate him the last of a considerable fortune, which he partly, that he might have an opportunity for dissipated through misconduct. The exmaking some observations essential to the establishment of certain principles while the heads of the others were falling.

Cros, Choderlos de la (his entire name" was Pierre Ambroise François Ch. de la Clos), well known for his extraordinary and dangerous novel, Les Liaisons dangereuses, born at Amiens, in 1741, was an officer in the army, afterwards secretary and confident of the duke of Orleans, whom he assisted in his plans during the revolution. In 1791, he entered the Jacobin club, and edited the journal Ami de la Constitution. He died, during the consular government, at Tarentum, in 1803, in the rank of general of brigade in the artillery in the army of Naples.

CLOSE-HAULED (au plus pres, in French), in navigation; the general arrangement or trim of a ship's sails, when she endeavors to make progress, in the nearest direction possible, towards that point of the compass from which the wind blows.

CLOSE-QUARTERS; certain strong barriers of wood, stretching across a metchant-ship in several places. They are used as a place of retreat when a ship is boarded by her adversary, and are therefore fitted with several small loopholes, through which to fire the small arms. They are likewise furnished with several small caissons, called powder-chests, which are fixed upon the deck, and filled with powder, old nails, &c., and may be fired at any time. Instances are known in which close-quarters have proved highly effective.

CLOTH. (See Cotton, Woollen, Silk, &c.) CLOTHING. A very striking fact, exhibited by the bills of mortality, is the very large proportion of persons who die of consumption. It is not our intention to enter into any general remarks upon the nature of that futal disease. In very many cases, the origin of a consumption is an ordinary cold; and that cold is frequently taken through the want of a proper attention to clothing, particularly in females. We shall, therefore, offer a few general remarks upon this subject, so important to the health of all classes of persons.—Nothing is more necessary to a comfortable state of existence, than that the body should be kept in nearly a uniform temperature. The Almighty Wisdom, which made the senses serve as instruments of pleasure for our gratification, and of pain for our protection, has rendered the feelings arising from excess or deficiency of heat so acute, that we instinctively seek shelter from the

scorching heat and freezing cold. We spiration. Were this only matter deficient bathe our limbs in the cool stream, or the skin would become sodden, as is the clothe our bodies with the warm fleece, case when it has been removed—a fact to We court the breeze, or carefully avoid it. be elegived in the harmone of washer but no efforts to mitigate the injurious effects of heat or cold would avail us, if vent powers of the soap. The hair serves mature had not furnished us, in common with other animals (in the peculiar functions of the skin and lungs), with a power of preserving the heat of the body uniform under almost every variety of temperature to which the atmosphere is liable. The skih, by increase of the perspiration, carries off the excess of heat; the lungs, thy decomposing the atmosphere, supply the loss; so that the internal parts of the body are preserved at a temperature of sible, the vessels that excite the perspira-about 98°, under all circumstances. In tion and the absorbent vessels partake of addition to the important share which the function of perspiration has in regulating the heat of the body, it serves the further purpose of an outlet to the constitution, by which it gets rid of matters that are no longer useful in its economy. The excreory function of the skin is, of such paramount importance to health, that we ought, at all times, to direct our attention to the means of securing its being duly performed; for if the matters that ought to be thrown out of the body by the pores of the skin are retained, they invariably prove injurious. When speaking of the excrementitious matter of the skin, we do not mean the sensible moisture which is poured out in hot weather, or when the body is heated by exercise, but a matter which is too subtile for the senses to take cognizance of, which is continually passing off from every part of the body, and which has been called the insensible perspiration. This insensible perspiration is the true excretion of the skin. A suppression of the insensible perspiration is a prevailing symptom in almost all diseases. It is the sole cause of many fevers. many chronic deseases have no other cause. In warm weather, and particularly in hot climates, the functions of the skin being prodigiously increased, all the consequences of interrupting them are proportionably dangerous. Besides the function of perspiration, the skin has, in common with every other surface of the body, a process, by means of appropriate vessels, of absorbing, or taking up, and conveying into the blood-vessels, any thing that may be in contact with it. It is also the part on which the organ of feeling or touch is distributed. The skin is supplied with. glands, which provide an oily matter, that renders it impervious to water, and thus secures the evaporation of the sensible per-

. . .

as so many capillary tubes to conduct the perspired fluid from the skin. The three powers of the skin, perspiration, absorption and feeling, are to dependent on each other, that it is impossible for one to be deranged without the other two being also disordered. For if a man be exposed to a frosty atmosphere, in a state of inar-tivity, or without sufficient clothing, till his limbs become stiff and his skin insenthe torpor that has seized on the nerves of feeling; nor will they regain their lost activity till the sensibility be completely restored. The danger of suddenly attempting to restore sensibility to frozen parts is well known. If the addition of warmth be not very gradual, the vitality of the part will be destroyed. This consideration of the functions of the skin will at once point out the necessity of an especial attention, in a fickle climate, to the sulfject of clothing. Every one's experience must have shown him how extremely capricious the weather is in this country. Our experience of this great inconstancy in the temperature of the air ought to have instructed us how to secure our-The chief end selves from its effects. proposed by clothing ought to be protection from the cold; and it never can be too deeply impressed on the mind (especially of those who have the care of children), that a degree of cold that amounts to shivering cannot be felt, under any circumstances, without injury to the health, and that the strongest constitution cannot resist the benumbing influence of a sensation of cold constantly present, even though it be so moderate as not to occasion immediate complaint, or to induce the sufferer to seek protection from it. This degree of cold often lays the foundation of the whole host of chronic diseases, foremost amongst which are found scrofula and consumption. Persons engaged in sedentary employments must be almost constantly under the influence of this degree of cold, unless the apartment in which they work is heated to a degree that subjects them, on leaving it, to all the dangers of a sudden transition, as it were, from summer to winter. The inactivity to which such persons are condemned, by weakening the body, renders it incapable

La proper quality, with the apartment of this percaution is productive of an independent warmed and well ventilated; mischief than is generally believed. The preferred, for keeping up the misery and suffering arising from it beguinged degree of warmth, to any means. While we are yet in the cradle, Wh to render any increase of clothing unnecommry. To heat the air of an apartment much above the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere, we must shut out the exfamal air; the air also becomes extremely rarefied and dry; which circumstances make it doubly dangerous to pass from it to the cold, raw, external air. But in leaving a moderately well warmed room, if properly clothed, the change is not felt; and the full advantage of exercise is derived from any opportunity of taking it that may occur.—The buly kind of dress that can afford the protection required by the changes of temperature to which high northern climates are liable, is woollen. Nor will it be of much avail that woollen be worn, unless so much of it be worn, and it be so worn, as effectually to keep out the rold. Those who would receive the advantage which the wearing of woollen is capable of affording, must wear it next the skin; for it is in this situation only that its health-preserving power can be felt. The great advantages of woollen cloth are briefly these :- the readiness with which it allows the escape of the matter of perspiration through its texture; its power of preserving the sensation of warmth to the skin under all circumstances; the difficulty there is in making it thoroughly wet; the slowness with which it conducts heat; the softness, lightness and pliancy of its texture. Cotton cloth, though it differs but little from linen, approaches nearer to the mature of woollen, and, on that account, must be esteemed as the next best substance of which clothing may be made. Silk is the next in point of excellence, but it is very inferior to couon in every respect. Linen possesses the contrary of must of the properties enumerated as excellences in woollen. 'It retains the matter of perspiration in its texture, and speedily becomes imbued with it; it gives an unpleasant sensation of cold to the skin; it is very readily saturated with moisture, and it sonducts hear too rapidly. It is, indeed, he worst of all the substances in use, heing the least qualified to answer the pur: see of clothing. There are averal prevaling errors in the mode of adapting

in the degree of warmin he follows to the figure of the body, particularly to complet, without additional bury amongst females. Clothes should be so ende as to allow the body the fall was a sufficient quantity of doding, articles of all its motions. The pages a proper quality, with the spartment of this prepaution is productive of mandetately warmed and well wentlessed. of heating the air of the room, so much as they have escaped from the nurses hands, boys are left to; nature. Girls have, for a while, the same chance as boys, in a freedom from bandages of all kinds; but, as they approach to wemenhood, they are. again put into trammels in the forms of The bad consequences of the stays. presente of stays are not immediately obvious, but they are not the less certain on that account. . The girl writhes and twists to avoid the pinching which must necesearily attend the commencement of wearing stays tightly laced.' The posture in which she finds case is the one in which she will constantly be, until, at last, she will not be comfortable in any other, even when she is freed from the pressure that. originally obliged her to adopt it. In this way most of the deformities to which young people are subject originate; and, unfortunately, it is not often that they are perceived until they have become considerable, and have existed too long to admit of remedy.

· CLOTILDE DE VALLON CHALIS, Marguerite Eléonore; born at Vallon, a castleon the Ardeche, in Languedoc, in the year, 1405. The poems of this lady, which have been preserved, did not make their appearance tili 1803. At the age of 11, she translated a poem of Petrarch into verse. I ortunate circumstances, particularly ther acquaintance with several distinguished female poets of her time; unfolded her poetical talents. In 1421, she married Berenger de Surville, a young knight, who was soon obliged to follow the dauphin (Charles VII) to Puy-en-Velay. On the occasion of this separation, she composed a beautiful poem, which takes the first rank amongst her works. After being married seven years, she lost her husband, who fell before Orleans. After this, she occupied her time with the education of young females possessed of poetical talent. Among these were Soplue de Lyonna and Juliene de Vivarez. By chance, she became acquainted with Margaret of Scotland, wife of the dauphin Louis. In consequence of a poem which she composed in praise of duke Philip the Good, Margaret sent her a crown of artificial laurel, with silver leaves, and interwoven with 12 golden flowers, and merwo-A Part of the same

## CLOTILDE DE VALLON CHALIS-CLOUD

would not listen to the pressing invitations "president of the chamber rings his bell, and which she received to appear at court. In 1495, she commemorated, in a poem, the triumphs of Charles VIII. The year of her death is not known. Her poems, - which are distinguished for delicacy and grace, appear to have both lost, when one of her descendants, Joseph Etienne de Surville (who, in 1798, was shot as a secretly returned emigrant), a man himself possessed of a talent for poetry, on searching the archives of his family, discovered, in 1782, the hand-writing of Clotilde. With difficulty he deciphered the writing, studied the language, and soon found his pains richly rewarded. On his emigranon, in 1791, he left the manuscript of . Cloude behind him, which, with many other family records, became a prey to the flames. The copies, which had been previously taken of several pieces, came from his widow into the hands of the present The genupublisher, M. Vanderbourg. ed, although it is apparent that, in some instances, M. de Surville has ventured to make alterations.

CLOTT RE, LA (the close); the term used in the French chamber of deputies, when one party insists upon having a discussion closed, and the vote taken. Though it cannot be denied, that the French improve in parhamentary skill, yet they are very far from parliamentary order, we might say decency, compared with the example of England and the U. States. This is principally owing to two causes: the first is want of experience. Parhamentary proprieties are things which cannot be regulated by orders and decrees, because great strictness of rule injures the freedom which gives value to parliamentary proceedings. They must be learned by practice, and rest on the convictions of the opposition, as well as of the other party. The second cause is the violence of parties. Neither in England nor in the U. States do there exist parties so entirely and essentially opposed as in France. No political partisan in England or the U. States thinks of destroying the constitution. The animosity, the refore, between parties cannot be, in either of these countries, so great as in France. The consequence of this is, that the opposition, or liberal party, in the French chambers, give vent to their feelings, and the administration party will not listen; but call, Aux voix! La clôture! during the speeches of their opponents, and not unfrequently make a noise similar to that of the Polish diet, and very much out of place in a deliberative body. The

sometimes closes the session, because he cannot restore order. The reglement of the chambre does not appear to be the cause of this disorder. It is dated June 25, 1814. and is an imitation of the English usages. This body of rules, with those for the chamber of peers, given July 2, 1814, and the law of Aug. 13, 1814, respecting the forms in which the king communicates with the chambers, and they with each other, are not in the Bulletin des Lois; they are contained in Laujuinais' Constitutions de la Nation Francaise, Paris, 1819.

CLOUD. The clouds are aqueous vapors, which hover at a considerable height above the surface of the earth. They differ from fogs only by their height and less degree of transparency. The cause of the latter circumstance is the thinness of the atmosphere in its higher regions, where the particles of vapor become condensed, ; The varieties of clouds are numerous. ineness of these poems is not to be doubt. Some cast a shade which covers the sky, and, at times, produces a considerable darkness; others resemble a light veil, and permit the rays of the sun and moon to pass through them. Clouds originate like fogs. The watery evaporations which rise from was, lakes, ponds, rivers, and, in fact, from the whole surface of the earth, ascend, on account of their elasticity and . hightness, in the atmosphere, until the air becomes so cold and thin that they can rise no higher, but are condensed. Phylosophers, however, are of very different opinions respecting the way in which the condensation and the whole formation of the clouds proceed. Do Luc, whose theory is considered the most probable, beheves that the water, after its ascent in the form of vapors, and before it takes the shape of clouds, exists in a gaseous state, not affecting the hygrometer, which is the reason why the air, in the higher regions, is always dry. He explains the clouds to be collections of small vesicles; in the transformation of which from the gaseous state, he believes that caloric operates, in part at least, because, according to his offmon, clouds communicate a degree of heat to the body which they render damp. According to Hube, clouds are collections of precipitated bubbles, and differ by their negative electricity from fogs, the electricity of which is generally positive. If clou is and fogs lose their electricity, rain is produced. These explanations are, however, by no means perfectly satisfactory. More on this subject is to be found in Mayer's Lehrbuch über die Physische Astronomie, Theorie der Erde und Meteorologie, Got-

VOL. III.

tingen, 1805. The change of winds contributes essentially to the formation of - clouds and fogs. In countries where this tchange is small and infrequent, as be-· tween the tropics, these phenomena of humidity in the atmosphere must be comparatively rare, but, when they happen, the more violent, because a great quantity of vapor has had time to collect. The distance of the clouds from the surface of the earth is very different. Thin and light clouds are higher than the highest mountains; thick and heavy clouds, on the contrary, touch low mountains, steeples, and even frees. The average height of the clouds is calculated to be two miles and a half. Their size is likewise very different. Some bave been found occupying an extent of 20 square indes, and their thickness, in some cases, has been ascertained, by travellers, who have ascended mountains, to be a thousand feet others are very thin, and of small dimensions. The natural history of clouds, not as respects their chemical structure, but their forms, their application to meteorology, and a knowledge of the weather, has been well treated by Lucas Howard, in his Essay on Clouds. He distributes clouds into three essentially different formations These formations are - 1. equas, consisting of tibres which diverge in all directions: 2. comidus, convey and control aggre gates, which increase from a horizontal basis upwards: 3. stratus, layers vosity extended, connected and horizontal. The clouds are generally assigned to three atmospherical regions, the upper, the middle and the lower one, to which a tourth, the lowest, may be added. In the upper region, the atmosphere is in such a state, that it can receive and sustain agreeusmatter dissolved into its integrant parts. This state of the atmosphere corresponds to the highest state of the barometer. To this region belongs the cirrus, which has the least density, but the greatest height. and variety of shape and direction. It is the first indication of serene and settled weather, and first shows itself in a few fibres, spreading through the atmosphere. These fibres by degrees merease in length, and new tibres attach themselves to the sides. The duration of the cirrus is uncertain, from a few annutes to several hours. It lasts longer, if it appear- alone, and at a great height, a shorter time, it . it forms in the neighborhood of other clouds. The middle region is the seat of cumulus, which is generally the most condensed, and moves with the stream of air nearest to the earth. This region can re-

ceive much humidity, but not in perfect solution. The humidity becomes collected, and shows itself in masses rising comcally, and resting on the third region. The appearance, increase and disappearance, of the cumulus, in tine weather, are often periodical, and correspondent to the degree of heat. Generally, it forms a few hours after sunrise, attants its highest de gree in the honest hours of the afternoon. and decreases and vanishes at sun-set. Great masses of cumulus, during high winds, in the quarter of the heavens towards which the wind blows, indicate approaching colm and rain. If the countlis does not disappear, but rises, a thunder storm is to be expected during the night If the upper region, with its drying power, predominates, the upper parts of the came lus become cirrus. But, if the lower region predominates (into which the denses vapors are attracted and dissolved into drops', the basis of the complier sinks, and the cloud becomes stratus, which is of moderate density, and its lower surface resis generally upon the earth or the water. This is the proper evening cloud, and appears first towards sunset. To this his long also those creeping togs, which, in calm evenings, ascend from the valleys, and extend themselves in undulating masses The stratus remains quiet, and accumulates lears, till at last it falls as real. This phenoncenon-the dissolution of clouds into ram is called nimbus. Howard further m ike- -mbdiy i-son-, 2-, i irro-i umulus, i ii rostratas, &c. Also the real stratus, the horizontal layer of clouds, sometimes uses higher thins at other times, which depends on the season, the polar length of the place or tr. beignts of mountains, the cumula is also sometimes higher and sometimes On the whole, however, the difterent kinds remain one above another The Poister has followed Howard in his anvestigations respecting the clouds, and Gothe, the Greatian poet, his made an appheation of this theory in his work entitled Zor Naturarismenschaft, vol. 1.

Chot b, Sr., a charmingly situated village, two leagues E, from Paris, in the department of Seme-and-Oise, with a royal castle and magnificent garden, which were much embelished by Napoleon. On the 7th of September, and some days following, perhaps a sixth part of the population of Paris is assembled here, full of gayety, attending the fair, which affords a striking picture of a certain class of the French people. As the residence of the monarch of France, St. Cloud is historically interesting. Many events in the fixil dis-

turbances of that country are connected with this place. Here Henry III was murdered by Clement (q. v.), Aug. 2, 1589; and, in modern times, it has been rendered famous by the revolution of the 18th of Brumaire, which destroyed the directory, and estabh-hed the con-ular government. Napoleon' chose St. Cloud for his residence; hence the expression, cabinet of St. Cloud. Under the former government, the phrase was cabinet of Versailles, or cabinet of the Tuiteris. In 1814, St. Cloud was besieged, March 31, by the van-guard of the army of the allies under Langeron. April 7, the headquarters of the allied armies were there, and remained there until June 3. In 1815, Blue her had his head-quarters at St. Cloud; and here also was concluded the military convention (July 3, 1-15), by which Paris tell a second time into the hands of the Bignon, Guilleimnot and count Bondi acted on the part of France, general Muffling (the same who was, in 1829, a mediator between Russia and Turkey, at Constantinople, sent there by the king of Prussin) for Prussia, colonel Hervey for England. The dubious sense of several points determined in the convention affers wards occasioned mutual reproaches

CLOVE. The clove is the interpanded flower-bud of an East Indian tree (*cory*ophillus area diens), som what resembling the laurel in its height, and in the shape of its leaves. The leaves are in pairs, oblong, large, spear-shaped, and of a bright-green color. The flowers grow in clusters, which terminate the branches, and have the enly valvided into four small and pointed segments. The petids are small, rounded, and of a blush color, and the seed is an oval beny. In the Molucca slands, where the raising of different spices was formerly carried on by the Dutch colonists to great extent, the culaire of the clove-tree was a very important pursuit. It has even been asserted, that, in order to seeme a luciative branch of commerce in this article to themselves, tney destroyed all the nees growing in other islands, and contined the propagation of them to that of Tenant, But it appears that, in 1770 and 1772, both clove and numeg-trees were transplanted from the Moluceas into the islands of Urance and Bourbon, and subsequently into some of the colonies of South America, where they have since been cultivated with great success. At a certain season of the year, the clove-tree produces a vast profusion of flowers. When these have attained the length of about half an inch, the four points of the calvy being promurent, and

having, in the middle of them, the leaves of the petals folded over each other, and forming a small head about the size of a pea, they are in a fit state to be gathered. This operation is performed betwirt the months of October and February, partly by the hand, partly by hooks, and partly by bearing the trees with bamboos. cloves are either received on cloths spread beneath the trees, or are suffered to fall on the ground, the herbage having been previously cut and swept for that purpose. They are subsequently dried by exposure for a while to the smoke of wood fires, afterwards to the rays of the sun. When first gathered, they are of a reddish color, but, by drying, they assume a deep-brown cast. This spice yields a very fragrant odor, and has a butterish, pungent, and warm taste. It is sometimes employed as a hot and stimulating medicine, but is: more frequently used in culinary preparations. When fresh gathered, cloves will yield, on pressure, a fragrant, thick, and reddish oil; and, by distillation, a lamped essential oil. Oil of cloves is used by many persons, though very improperly, for curing the teoth-ache; since, from its pungent quality, it is ant to corrode the gums and injure the adjacent teeth. When the tooth is carious, and will admit of it, a brinsed clove is much to be preferred.

CLOVE BALL OF CULILAWAY BALK corter laws calibration) is furnished by a tree of the Mobicea islands. It is in pieces more or hes long, almost flat, thick, fibrons, covered with a white epidermis, of a reddish-vellow made, of a number and clove odor, and of an aromatic and sharp taste. It is one of the substitutes for emuamon, but not much used. We find, also, m commerce, under the name of clore bark, another bark formshed by the myrthus cargophillata Land. It is in sticks two feet long, formed of several pieces of very thin and hard back, rolled up one over the other, of a deep brown color, of a taste similar to that of cloves. It possesses the same properties as the former banks, and may be considered as a substitute for them.

CLOVER trifolium). The clovers are a very mimerous family. Some botainsts reckon no less than 55 species belonging to the genus of which cultivated clovers are varieties. The following are most used:—1. Pratense, or common red clover. This is a brennial, and sometimes, especially on chalky soils, a triennial plant. This is the kind most commonly cultivated, as it yields a larger product than any of the other sorts. The soil best adapted to clo-

ver is a deep, sandy loam, which is favorable to its long tap-roots; but it will grow yn any soil not too moist. So congenial is calcarious matter to clover, that the there strewing of lime on some soils will call into action clover-seeds, which, it would appear, have laid dormant for ages. It is a recommendation of this grass, that it is adapted to a soil suitable to scarcely any other kind of grass-to land which is dry, light, sandy, or composed mostly of gravel. · Clover-seed should be sowed in the spring. , except an chmates where there are no severe winter frosts. The young plants which come up in autumn cannot bear the frost so well as those which have had a whole summer to bring them to maturay. Spring wheat is a very good crop with which to sow clover and other grassseed. It is recommended to sow the grassseed, and plough or harrow it in with the wheat. If it be scattered on the surface without being well covered, a part does not vegetate, and that which does will be hable to mury from drought. Cloverseed may also be sown in the spring on winter grain, and harrowed in. European writer agree with American cultivators. that the harrowing will do no damage, but will be of service to the grain. The author of a valuable work, entitled a Treatise or Agriculture, lately published in Albany, directs 10 or 12 pounds of clover-ced to be sown on an acre, if the soil be rich, and double that quantity it it be poor. He condemns the practice of mixing the seeds of timothy, rye, grass, &c. with that of clover, "because these grasses is other rise nor ripen at the same time." Another practice, equally body according to this writer', "is that of sowing cloverseed on wrater gram before the earth has arquired a temperature favorable to vegetation, and when there can be no denist but that two thirds of the seeds will perso sh." Clover-seed of a bright vellow, which a good quantity of purple and frown colored seed amongst it, which shows its maturity, should be preferred. perfectly tipe and well gathered, as power of vegetation will continue for four or five years. Two sorts of machines are described in the Transactions of the New York Agricultural Society, for gathering clover-seed. One of these machines consuste of an open box about four feet square at the bottom, and about three feet in height on three sides; to the forepart, which is open, fingers or fixed, about time feet in length, and so near as to break off the heads from the clover-tocks between them, which are thrown back is-

the box advances. The box is fixed on an axle-tree, supported by small wheels, with handles fixed to the hinder part, by which the driver, while managing the horse, raises or depresses the fingers of the machine, so as to take off the heads of the grass. The other machine, called a cradle, is made of an oak board about 18 inches in legigth and 10 in breadth. The fore part of it, to the length of 9 melies, is saved into fingers; a handle is m-erted behand, inclined towards them. and a cloth put round the back part of the board, which is cut somewhat circular, and gused on the handle; this collects the heads or tops of the grass, and prevents them from scattering as they are struck off by the cradle, which may be made of different sizes,—being smaller in proportion for women and children, who, by means of it, may like wise collect large quantities -2 Trifolium repens, or white This also thrives best in light closer Lord. It is a natural grass of the U. States, but, when sown by itself, it rarely grows tall enough to be well cut with a suhe. When maxed with timothy or green grass opou viridis), it makes excellent hay. Clover regions much attention to make it into hay. Its stalks are so succulent that the leaves, which are the best part, are apt to crumble and waste away before the has, is well dived. It has, therefore, been recommended to cart it to the mow or stack before the starks are dry, and either to put it up with alternate layers of hav and straw, or to salt it at the rate of from half a bushel to a whole bushel per ton. Green clover is good for swine. The late pide Peters, or Pennsylvania, observed, "In summer, my bogs cheffy run on clover. Swine reading on clover in the in lds will thrive wonderfully; when those teentined or not ted on cut clover will fall eway " (Me ), Perin Agr. Soc. vol. 11, p. 33)

Creves, king of the Pranks, born 465. stackeded his father, Childeric, m. 181, a. chief of the warbke tribe of Sahan Franks, who alhabited a barren country between the see and the Schold. This tribe, at a former period, had made meur-ions into the neighboring territories, but were driven back into their forests and morasses. Clovis, therefore, united with Ragnacaire, king of Cambray, and declared war upon Syngnus (son of Actius), the Roman governor at Soissons. The Romans were entirely routed near Sorsons, in 186. Syngrus fled to Toulouse, to the court of Alarc. king of the Goths, whose cowardly counsellors delivered hun up to Clovis, by whom he was put to death. Soissons of

now became the capital of the new kingdoin of the Salian Franks. The uncultivated Clovis governed his new subjects with wisdom and moderation: he was particularly desirous to obtain the good will of the clergy. All the cities in Belgie Secunda submitted to him. Paris yielded to the victor in 493, and, in 507, was selected for the capital of his kingdom. order to obtain assistance in withstanding the powerful Visigoths in Gaul, Clovis married Clouda, niece of Gundebald, king of Burgundy. This princess, who had been educated in the Catholic faith, was desnous that her husband, also, should embrace it. Her efforts were finitless, all, on an occasion when he was hard pressed in a battle against the Allemann, near Zülpich (496), Clovis called on the God of Cloudd and the Christians. Victory declared in his favor; and the part of the territory of the Allemann lying on the Upper Rinne submitted to the king of the Franks. The victor's conversion was now an easy matter for the eloquent St. Remigius, archbishop of Rheims. Clovis was solemnly baptized at Rhenns, December 25, 496, with several thousand Franks, men and women. St. Remigus, it the same time, anomied him. The enties of Armorica (Bretagne) then subanited to his sceptic, in 197. There now remained in Gaul only two independent powers besides the Franks, viz. the Burgundans and Visigoths. The former had two kings, Godegisele and Gundebald. Clovis made an attack upon the latter, whose territories extended from the Voswes to the Alps and the sea-coast of Marseilles. Gundebald, deserted by the faithless Godegiscle, was found near Dijon, compelled to surrender Lyons and Vienne to the victorious Clovis, and to flee to Avignon, where he concluded a peace, Clovis returned home loaded with spoils, Gundebald afterwards violated the treaty; but Clovis, fearing the Goths, entered into a new alliance with him. Hostilities soon broke out between Alanc, king of the Goths, and Clovis. In the battle near Poietiers, between the rivers Vonne and Cionere, the latter gamed a complete victory, slaying his enemy with his own hand, and conquered Aquitama. this conquest, Clovis received the honor of the consulship from the emperor Anastasius. The king of the Franks, having his head adorned with a diadem, appeared in the church of St. Martin of Tours, clad in the turne and purple robe, and was sa-Inted by the people as consul and Augustus. He strengthened his authority, while

he tarnished his glory, by murders and cruelties. He died Nov. 26, 511, having reigned 30 years. His four sons divided his dominions between them. 25 years later, the kingdom of Burgundy came under the power of the Franks, the Ostrogoths were obliged to yield to them Arles and Marseilles, and Justinian concoded to them the sovereignty of Gaul. In the last year of his reign, Clovis had called a council at Orleans, from which are dated the peculiar privileges claimed by the kings of France in opposition to the pope.

CLUB; a society which meets on cer-Jam times at certain places, for various purposes; for instance, chess chibs, racing clubs, &c. The political clubs originated in England, and thence passed to France and to other countries. They were prohibited by a law of the German empire, made in 1793. The French club, during the revolution, must be considered as its focus. An accurate acquaintance with their history is indispensable for the understanding of a great part of the revolution. They were connected and regularly orgamzed, and their resolutions were pubh-hed. In the minuteness of their ramification throughout the country, they resembled the corresponding committees in the American colomes before the American revolution. These French clubs destroyed the constitution of 1795. They were afterwards prolubited. (See Licobia and France.)

CLUI of a sail (in French, point) is the lower country, and hence clue-garnets (acquive-point, Fr) are a sort of tackles fastened to the clues of the mainsal and foresul, to truss them up to the yard, which is usually termed clueing-up the sails. Clue-lines are used for the saine purpose as clue-garnets, only that the later are confined to the courses, whilst the glue-lines are confined to the square-sails.

Chave: a town of France, in the Saone-and-Loire, lying between two mountains, on the Grone: 9 males N. W. Maçon, 21 miles S. Chalons-sur-Saone; population, 3400. Here was a Benedictine abbey, founded by Wilham, duke of Aquitaine, at one time the most celebrated in France. Ats funds were vast, and its edifices had the appearance of a well built city. The church is one of the largest in France. The town contains 3 parishes. (See Abelard.)

CLYDE (anciently Glota); a river in Scot land, which rises in the south part of Lancishire, passes by Lancik, Hamilton, Glasgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton, & c., and

23\*

of Chide, at the southern extremity of the island of Bute. It is 70 miles long, and becomes navigable at Glasgow. It has romantic falls, particularly at Corrahouse and Stonebyres, of 84 and 80 feet

perpendicular.

CLYMER, George, one of the signers of the declaration of independence, was born in Philadelphia in 1730, of a respectable family. His father emigrated from Bristol, England. The death of his parents left George an orphan at the age of 7 years; but he was well taken care of by his uncle. Wilham Coleman, who bequeathed to himthe principal part of his fortune. After the completion of his studies, young Clymer entered into his uncle's countinghouse, though his inclination for cultivating his mind was much greater than for mer-When discontent had canule pursuns. been excited in the colomés by the arbitrary acts of the British parliament, he was among the first in Pennsylvama to raise his voice in opposition, and was named by a meeting held in Philadelphia, Oct. 16, 1773, chairman of a committee appointed to demand of the commissioners for selling the tea which had been imported into America, on account of the East India company, their resignation of the office. The demand was complied with. Mr. Clymer was afterwards chosen a member of the council of saiety, when the mcreasing troubles rendered such a body necessary. In 1775, he was appointed one of the first continental treasurers, but he resigned his office shortly after his tirst election to congress, in Aug., 1776. His zeal in the cause of his country was displayed by subscribing, himself, as well as by encouraging the subscriptions of others, to the loan opened for the purpose of rendering more effective the opposition to the measures of the British; and also by the disinterested manner in which he exchanged all his specia for continental currency. In July, 1776, he was chosen, together with doctor Benjamin Rush, James Wilson, George Ross and George Taylor, esquires to supply the vacancy in congress occasioned by the resignation of the memhers of the Pennsylvania detegration, who had refused their assent to the declaration of independence. The new members were not present when the instrument was agreed upon, but they all affixed to a their agastures. In the autumn of 1777, his house in Chester county, in which his family resided, was plundered by a band of British soldiers, his property greatly damaged, and his wife and children con-

forms the arm of the sea called the Frith strained to fly for safety. His services in of Chide, at the southern extremity of the cause of liberty seemed, indeed, to have rendered him peculiarly obnoxious to the British; for, when they took possession of Philadelphia, a numerous body proceeded to tear down the house of his aunt, supposing it to be his, and only desisted when informed of their mistake. In the year 1780, Mr. Clymer was a member of an association which made an offer to congress of establishing a bank for the sole purpose of facilitating the transportation of a supply of 3,000,000 of rations and 300 hogsheads of rum to the army, which was on the point of disbanding, in consequence of its distressed condition. Congress received the offer, and pledged the faith of the U. States to the subscribers to the bank for their full indemnity, and deposited in it, as well for that purpose as in support of its credit, bills for £150,000 sterling, on the American ministers in Europe. Mr. Clymer was one of the gentlemen selected to preside over the institution, the good effects of which were long In Nov., 1780, Mr. Clymer was again elected to congress, and strongly advocated there the establishment of a national bank. He was chosen, in May, 1782, to repair, with Mr. Rutledge, to the Southern States, and make such representations as were bost adapted to procure tion them then quotas for the purposes of the war, which were very remissly fur-nished. In the autumn of 1784, during which year party spirit had raged with great violence in Pennsylvania, he was elected to the legislature of that-state, to asset in opposing the constitutionalists. who were so termed in consequence of then epholding the old constitution, which was justly deemed deficient. Pennsylvaear is greatly indebted to his exertions for the amelioration of her penal code, which had previously been of so sangumary a nature as to produce extreme and almost universal discontent. Mr. Clymer was also a member of the convention which framed the present constitution of the federal government, and was elected to the first congress which met when it was about to be carried into operation. After serving throughout the term, he declined a reflection. In 1781, a bill having been passed in congress, imposing a duty on spirits distilled within the 1. States, he was placed at the head of the excise department, in the state of Pennsylvania. In the year 1796, he was appointed, together with colonel Hawkins and colonel Pickens, to negotiate a treaty with the Cherokee and Creek Indians of Georgia. He subsequently

became the first president of the Philadelphia bank, and of the academy of arts. He died Jan. 23, 1813, in the 74th year of his age, at Morrisville, Bucks county, Pennsylvania.

CLYTEMNESTRA; daughter of king Tyndarus and Leda, and twin-uster of Helen. She bore her husband, Agamenmon, two daughters, Iphigenia and Electra, and one son, Orestes. During the absence of Agamenmon, in the war against Troy, she bestowed her favors on Ægisthus, and, in connexion with him, mirdered Agamemnon on his return from Troy, and, together with her paramour, governed Mycene for seven years. Orestes killed them both, See Agamemnon and Orestes.)

CNIDUS, or GNIDUS; a town in Caria, a province of Asia Minor, and a favorite place with Venus, who was, therefore, -urnamed the Gnidian goddess. She had there three temples. The first, probably creeted by the Lacedemonian Dorians, was called the temple of Long Doris. The second was consecrated to her under the name of Venus Acrag. The third. alled the temple of the Guidian Venus, and, by the inhabitants, the temple of Verus Euplan, contained Praxiteles' marble statue of the goddess, one of the master-pieces of art. This was afterwards removed to Constantanople, where it perished in a conflagration, in 1461.

Coxen. The coach is distinguished from other vehicles chiefly as being a covred box, hung on leathers. In the most incient times, kings and princes had parneular whicles which they used on soleran occasions, but these were not covered. We find in the Bible, that such carriages were used in Egypt in the time of Joseph. Covered wagons also appear to be of great surrounty; for, even in Moses' time, such wagons were used for carrying loads, and the wandering Scythians are said to have had wagons covered with leather, to proteet them from the weather: so, likewise, had the Spartans, who called these carnages kanathron. The seat of the coachman is also a very ancient invention of Oxylis, an Ætohan who took possession of the lengton of Els 1100 years B. C. The Romans had both open and covered carriages, the latter being used to transport sick soldiers and aged people. The covered carriage, called carrica, first mentioned by Plmy, was flivented later. It was adorned with ivery, brass, and, finally, with gold and silver, and used only to convey magistrates, and distinguished individuals of both sexes. The carrica were drawn by mules. Covered carriages

were therefore known to the ancients; but they were not acquainted with coaches, or carriages suspended on leathers. These are said to have been invented in Hungary, and their name, which, in the language of that country, signifies covered, to be also " of Hungarian origin. Others derive the German name of the coach, Kutsche, from Gratsche, which signified, formerly, a bed : or from Kitsee or Kutsee, considering this as the place where the vehicle was invented. Others think that coaches were invented in France. Charles V is said to have used such a conveyance, when afflicted with the gout, and to have slept in it. The invention of coaches in Hungary is said to have taken place in 1457; but Isabella, the wife of Charles VI of France, is said to have made her entrance into Paris, in 1405, in a covered carriage, suspended on leathers. As, at first, none but ladies used these carriages in France, they were called, from this circumstance, chariots damerets. Under Francis I, the construction of coaches was much improved. They were called corrosses; and the openings were formshed with leather curtains. The first man who made use of one of these carriage- was Raimond de Laval, a cavaher of the court of Francis I, who was so large, that no howe could carry him. His coach, and that of the celebrated Diana of Porters, duchess of Valentinois (q.v.), were made about 1540, and were the first carriages on springs in Paris; and, 10 years after, there were not more than three such vehicles in that city. Under Henry III : (1574-89), the fourth coach was introduced. This was kept by a private person. Before that time, they were considered as belonging exclusively to the royal family, or to very distinguished officers. Henry IV, who is known to have been murdered in a conch, kept but one carriage for himself and his wife, as appears from a letter, in which he tells a friend, as an excuse for his absence, that his wife was using the coach. The marshal Bassomusing the coach. pierie, in 1599, brought the first coachwith glass windows from Italy into . France. In 1658, there were 520 coaches in Paris, and the number went on continually increasing. In Germany, the emperors and princes used coaches as early as the 15th century. The emperor Frederic III, for instance, went in one to Frankfort in 1474. In 1509, the wife of the elector Joachun I of Brandenburg had a gilded coach, and 12 others ornamented with crimson. Coaches are said to have been introduced into Spain in 1546, and into Sweden in the last half of the 16th centu

rv. The oldest carriages used by the ladies in England were called whirlicotes. The mother of king Richard II, who accompainied him in his flight (1360), rode in a car-. " riage of this sort. But coaches, properly so , called, were first introduced into England from Germany or France, in 1580, in the reign of queen, Elizabeth, and the first seen in public belonged to Henry, earl of Arundel. In 1601, the year before the queen's death, an act was passed to prevent men from riding in conches, as being efferninate: but they were in common use, in London, about the year 1605. Twenty years afterwards, hackney-coaches were introduced. They were prohibited in 1635, and, m 1637, only 50 backney-coachmen were The number of coaches was licensed. iner, ased by degrees, and, in 1770, as many as 1000 were licensed. The duty on coaches in Lingland in 1778, the number then kept being 23,000, amounted to £117,000. The total duty on coaches in England, in 1785, was £154,988; in Scotland, only £9000. The French invented the post-chaise, the use of which was brought into England by Tull, the well-known writer on husbandry. In Switzerland, coaches were a rarity as late as 1650.—Philadelphia (q. v.)surpasses all other places in America in the manufacture of coaches. The manufacture of elegant coaches is a proof of much wealth and mechanical skill in a place; many different artists being employed in their construction, who become skillful only when the demand for then work is considerable. A very large sort of coaches, called omnibus, has lately come into use in Paris, and still later in London. They serve as means of communication between different parts of the city, and contain a large number of passengers, with quanti ues of new-papers, furniture, &c. The fare at Paris is very cheap. Quite recentdy, a stage-coach began to run from Pans to Orleans, containing 60 passengers.

COARUMA Y TEXAS: a state or province of Mexico, bounded E. by Tamauhpas, S. by New Leon, S. W. by Durango, W. by Chihuahua. Its northern boundary and extent are not well defined. It is watered by the Rio del Norte and its branches. The chief towns are Montelovez and Salullo.

COAK. (See Coul.)

COAL consists essentially of carbonaceous matter, and, in one variety, the blind coal (see Anthrucite), this is nearly pure; but in the greater number of the varieties of coal, there is present a soft, butunmous matter, which communicates to them some peculiar properties. Those which contain much bituinen are highly inflammable, and

burn with a bright flame; those in which the carbon predominates burn less vividly. Numerous varieties of coal exist, deriving distinctions partly from their state of aggregation, but principally from the proportions of their bitumen and carbon. Excepting the anthracite, they may be treated of under the two divisions of black coals and brown coals.—The color of brown coal, es its name imports, is brown: it possesses a ligheous structure, or consists of earthy particles. The color of black coal is black, not inclining to brown, and it does not possess the structure of wood.-The varicties of brown coal are the following:bitun**kneus** wood, which presents a ligheous texture, and very seldom any thing like conchoidal fracture, and is without lustre; earthy coal, consisting of loose, finishe particles: moor coal, distinguished by the want of ligneous structure, by the property of bursting and splitting into angular fragments, when removed from its original repository, and the low degree of lustre upon its imperfect conchoidal fracture; common brown coal, which, though it still shows traces of ligneous texture, is of a more firm consistency than the rest of the varieties, and possesses higher degrees of histre upon its more perfect conchoidal fracture. Some varieties of black coel mmediately join those of brown coal. They are, pitch coal, of a velvet-black color, generally including to brown, strong lustre, and presenting, in every direction, a large and perfect conchoidal fracture: slate coal, possessing a more or less coarse. slaty structure, who h, however, scenis to be rather a kind of lamellar composition than real fracture; foliated coal, resembling it, only the lamina are thinner, and course coal in take manner, only the component particles are smaller, and approach to a granular appearance, council coal, without visible composition, and having a tlat, conchoidal fracture in every direction, with but little lestre, by which it is distinguished from pitch coal. All these kindscare joined by numerous transitions, so that a often becomes doubtful to which of them we should ascribe certain specimens. though they undoubtedly are members of this species.—As the preceding varieties of coal consist of variable proportions of bitumen and carbon, they, of course, must vary in their inflammability. Several variene - becomeroft, and others coke, when kindled, or, in other words, allow of the separation of the bitummous from the carbonaceous part. We perceive this separation in its combustion in a common fire: the coal, when kindled, swelling and soft-

oning, exhaling a kind of bitumen, and been separated. In the beginning of the burning with smoke and light; while. after a certain period, these appearances cease, and it burns only with a red light. The separation is effected more completely by the application of heat in close vessels: the bitumen is melted out, and there is disengaged ammonia, partly in the state of carbonate with empyreumatic oil, and the coal gas (a variety of carbureted hydrogen), often mixed with carbonic acid and sulphureted hydrogen, the carbonaecous matter being, in a great measure, left, forming coke.—The decomposition of toal is carried on, on a large scale, with a view to collect the products; the gas being used to afford an artificial light, which is clear, steady, easily regulated, and econormcal; the bituminous matter, or mineral tar, being applied to the uses for which vegetable tar and pitch are employed, and the coked coal being used in the smelting of metallic ores, and for various other purposes, where an elevated and steady femperature is needed .- Coal, excluding anthracite, has been supposed to be of vegetable origin. There is a remarkable gradnation from bituminated wood to perfect 'afterwards, joined by Portugal, Naples, coal. In some varieties, the structure, and even the remains, of plants are apparent, and its chemical composition agrees with that of vegetable matter. It is difficult to determine, however, in what manner it has been formed, or by what operations the vegetable matter, from which it has originated, has been so far modified, as to have assumed the properties under which it exists. And there are many geologists who regard it, in common with anthracite, as an original mineral deposit.—The varieties called state coal, foliated roal, coarse roal, cannel coal, and pitch coal, occur chiefly in the coal formation, some varieties of pitch coal, also the moor coal, brummous wood, and common brown coal, are met with in the formations above the chalk: the earthy coal, and some varieties of bituminous wood and common brown coal, are often included in diluvial and alluvial detritus. The coal seams alternate with beds of slaty clay and common clay, sandstone, innestone, sand. Ac. They are often associated with vegetable organic remains, in slaty clay; sometynes, also, with shells, and having iron pyrites intermixed with them. Bituminous coal is so universally distributed, that it is unnecessary to attempt the enumeration of its localities. It abounds, m the U. States, in Pennsylvania, Virginia, Ohio, and the Western States generally.

Coalition, in chemistry: the reunion or combination of parts which had before

French revolution, the French authors used this expression, by way of contempt, to denote the confederation of several powers against France; the word alliance appearing to them, perhaps, too noble for the object. From that time, the word has been received 'into diplomatic language; but there is generally some idea of reproach connected with the use of it. diplomatists of the continent of Europe have made this distinction between alliance and coalition, that the former is more general, the latter is directed against a particular enemy, for a distinct object. The first coalition against France was concluded between Austria and Prussia for the preservation of the constitution of the German empire, and for checking the progress of the French revolution (7th of Feb., 1792). The separate peace with Prussia, concluded at Bale (5th of April, 1795), and the line of demarcation for the north of Germany, were the first steps to the dissolution of the German empire. The next coalition is that of 1793. Germany declared war (22d of March), and was Tuscany, and the pope. In addition to this, a treaty of alliance was concluded at London, between Great Britain and Rus-The third is the triple alliance a itered into at St. Petersburg, by Russia, Austria and Great Britain (28th of Sept., 1795), at a time when several princes of the empire withdrew their troops. This coalition was dissolved by the peace of Campo-Formio, between Austria and France, in which, at the same time, a general congress for the conclusion of peace with the whole empire was appointed at Rastadt (9th of Dec., 1797, to April, 1799). The negotiations : which took place here were declared null, by Austria: for, during them, a new coalition (the fourth) had been formed between Russia, the Porte (23d of Dec., 1798) and England. Austria and Naples, also, were induced to join it. Separate treaties of scace dissolved it again, viz. the peace of Lungville with Austria and Germany (9th of Feb., 1801), that of Florence with Na-ples (28th of March, 1801), that of Paris with Russia (8th of Oct., 1801), of Paris with the Porte (9th of Oct.), and of Amiers with Great Britain (25th of March, 1802). Of all these states, Great Britain first declared war against France (18th of April, 1803), and, in April, 1805, new negotiations were begun between England, Russia, Austria and Prussia, for another coale tion (the fifth) against France. At Petersburg, the two first powers contracted to

effect a general confederation of the European states against France, for the restoration of peace and the political balance, and for the foundation of a federative system adapted to secure the rights of nations. All the powers were to be invited to join this confederacy. In the same year, it was partly dis-elved by the peace of Presburg with Austria (26th of Dec., 1805), and completely, by the peace of Paris with Russia (20th of July, 1806). Prussia, which till then had not taken an active part, thought herself strong enough to encounter France single-handed. accession of England and Russia (besides the previous junction of Saxony, and, probably, of other temporazing cabinets) produced the sixth coalmon. The peace of Tilsit (7th and 9th of July, 1807), put an end to this umon; and the peace at Vienna (14th of Oct., 1800) terminated the Austrian coalmon with England (the sevenths. Finally, we may mention under this head the last great alliance against France. It consisted first of Russia and England, but was mereased in succession by the addition of Spain and Portugal, Sweden, Prussia. Austria, the German princes with few exceptions, Naples, and, at last, Denmark. It ended with the peace of Pans (31st of May, 1814). The return of Napoleon, however, in 1815. revived it. From this spring the "holy albance" of Russia. Austria and Prussia, which was joined by the king of France. at Aix-la-Chapelle (q. v.), in 1818 England and the U. States of North America, the word could on is used to denote the union of several parties or their leaders against another party; but it alway's expresses something odous. Thus, for mstance, the party of Patt denounced the coalition of Fox and North

COAT OF ARMS. I. the surrout worn by a knight: 2, the ensigns armorial of a family: so called, because originally worn on some part of the armor. Their origin is to be referred to the age of clavalry, when they were assumed as emblemate, of the adventures, love, hopes &c., of the knight, . and were useful for distinguishing individuals, whom it was difficult to it cognise. .covered, as they were, from head to foot, This, perhaps, may even with armor. have been the origin of the usage. As every thing else became hereditary in Europe,-estates, digratics, titles, privileges,-so the favorite emblem of the knight become the adopted badge of the family, the figums or characters employed in them began to receive names, and the language and remerce of heraldry (q. v.) was formed.

The right to bear arms thus became a distinctive mark of gentle birth. In France, the feudal privileges and nobility were abolished by the revolution. Under Napoleon, the imperial noblesse were a certain number of feathers, indicative of their rank: a simple chevalier, 1; a baron, 3; a duke, 7.

COBALT occurs alloyed with arsenic, nickel and other metals, and nineralized by oxygen and by arsenic acid. It is obtained, after the ore has been rousted and calcined, in the state of an oxide, impure from the presence of other metallic oxides. When this oxide is obtained in a state of purity, and reduced to the metallic state, we are presented with a metal of a white color, inclining to gray, and, if tarnished, to red, with a moderate histre. Its fracture is compact; it is hard, brittle, and of a specific gravity of 7 %. Lake mckel, it is sensibly magnetic, and is susceptible of being rendered permanently so. It undergoes little change in the air, but absorbs oxygen when heated in open vessels. It is attacked with difficulty by sulphurie or muratic acid, but is readily oxidized by means of intric acid. There are but two oxides of cobalt known. The protoxide is of an ash-gray color, and is the basis of the salts of cobalt, most of which are of a pink line. When heated to redneys in open ve -el-, it absorbs oxygen, and is converted into the peroxide. It may be prepared by decomposing the carbonate of cobalt by heat, in a vessel from which the atmospheric air is excluded. It is easily known by its giving a blue that to borns when melted with it, and is employed in the arts, m the form of smalt, for communicating a sundar color to glass, to earther wate, and to parceling. Small, or powder blue, is made by melting three parts of fine white sand, or calenied flints, with two of purified pend-ash and one of cobalt ore, previously calemed, and lading it out of the pots into a 've-set of cold water; after which the dark-blue glass, or zatire, is ground. washed over, and distributed into different shades of colors, which shades are occasioned by the different qualities of the ore, and the coarser and ince granding of the /powder. Smalt, besides being used to stam glass and pottery, is often substituted, in painting, for ultra-marine blue, and is likewise employed to give to paper and hnen a bluish tinge. The murate of cobalt is celebrated as a sympathetic ink. When diluted with water, so as to form a pale pink solution, and then employed as mk, the letters which are invisible in the cold, become blue, if gently heated. It is

prepared by dissolving one part of zaffre in two of diluted nitric acid, with the aid part, and diluting with 20 parts of water. The peroxide of cobalt is of a black color, and is easily formed in the way already mentioned. It does not unite with acids: and, when digested in muriatic acid, the proto-muriate of cobalt is generated with the disengagement of chlorine. When strongly heated in close vessels, it gives off oxygen, and is converted into the protoxide .- Ores of cobult : 1. White cobult ore, or bright white cobalt ore, consists, principally, of cobalt and arsenic. Its color intinwhite, liable to tarnish, with little lustre. It occurs massive and crystallized, in cubes and in octohedrons. It is hard and brittle. Specific gravity, 7.3 to 7.7. Before the blowpipe, it melts, and gives an arsenical smoke and odor. It forms a metallic globule, and gives to borax a blue color. It occurs chiefly in primitive rocks, and is frequently accompanied with bismuth. It is found most abundantly in Germany, Sweden and Norway, and also occurs in several other European countries. 2. Gray cobalt ore is an alloy of cobalt with arsenic and iron, and is sometunes accompanied with small portions of mckel and bismuth. Its color is lightgray; hable to tarmsh. It occurs massive or dissemmated, and is never erystallized. It has been found in the 1. States, at Chatham, Conn., but has not, intherto, been wrought advantageously It also occurs in Bohemia, Saxony and France. 3. Red cobalt ore is a hydrated arsomate of cobalt, of a beautiful peach-blossom red color. It occurs massive, disseminated, and in minute crystals. It accompanies other ores of cobalt.

Corbert, William, a notorious political writer in England and America, was born in 1766, in the county of Surry, England, the son of a farmer, from whom he received the rudiments of his education reading, writing and arithmetic. In 1783, he left the plough for London, where he became "an understrapping quill-driver," as he calls himself, to an attorney in Gray's lun. This employment not suiting his restless disposition, he enlisted as a common soldier in 1784, and remained in England a year, spending his leisure hours in reading and study, particularly in the study of grammar. He wrote out the whole of Lowth's grammar two or three times, got it by heart, and repeated it every morning and evening. He then suled to join his regiment in America, and remained there, in Nova Scotta and New Brunswick,

till 1791, when the regiment was relieved and sent home. Serjeant-major Cobbett of heat, adding to it of muriate of soda one 'here left the service, and terminated his military career. In 1792, he first came to the U. States, after a short visit to France. He began his career in Philadelphia, as a writer of political pamphlets, under the well known name of Peter Porcupine, soon after engaged in the business of a bookseller in that city, and published, at the same time, a daily newspaper, called The French interest, the Porcupine. which then prevailed in the U. States, he opposed with great violence; mingling the coarsest personal abuse with the severest political invective. Having been convicted for a libel on doctor Rush, and con demned in \$5000 damages, he left the . country, and returned to England in 1800. Here he published the Works of Peter Porcupine, containing a faithful Picture of the U. States, &c. (London, 1801, 12 vols., Syo.), consisting of selections from the Porcupine, with remarks illustrating them, and of his other personal and political wrumg-, previously published in America. This work was dedicated " to a declared enemy of comblicans and levellers." In it, doctor Priestley (Observations on Priestley's Emigration, doctor Rush in the Rush-Laght), doctor Franklin, &c., were un-paringly abused. He soon as a estabh-hed the Weekly Political Register (commenced in 1802), which has been conducted with considerable talent, but great bitterness. In 1510, he was convicted of a libel with intention to excite amotiny, and condemned to confinement in Newgate, and to pay a fine of £1000. Akhough the tine was paid by a subscription among his: friends, he addressed a letter to the king in 1828, praying his majesty to restore him the sum. In 1815, he became the champion of Napoleon, whom he had previously awailed with the utmost vehemence.' In 1817, he again visited America: but we soon after find him h langland, where, m 1819, he published his Year's Residence in America. He was never naturalized in the J. States, objecting to the oath required, abjuring all allegance to any other He now connected himself with the party called radicals; and we often find him harangoing at public meetings with great success: but, a convicted libeller on both sides of the Atlantic, twice cast out by his own country, and as often rejected by America, alternately praising, abusing, calumnating and panegyrizing the same party, his inconsistency and settle contradictions have much diminished his influence, notwithstanding his great ad-

dress and his popular eloquence. Besides his works already mentioned, the principal are Parliamentary Debates, from 1803-10-11, 20 vols. evo.; Maitres Anglais, or English Grammar for the Use of Frenchmen, which has obtained great reputation in France, where it has passed through many editions (the examples, illustrating the rules, are severe attacks on royalty); his Life, written by himself (1816); Treatise on Cobbett's Corn\* (1828); the title-page of this work is printed on paper made of the husks of Indian corn). In the latter part of 1820, he was engaged in delivering lectures on the causes of the existing distress in England, and the best means of relieving it.

Cobental, Louis, count of, son of count John of Cobentzl, a diplomatist in the Austrian service, was born at Brussels in 1753. He entered first into the unhtary service of Austria, was appointed immster at Copenhagen, after the revolution of 1771, and at the court of Frederic the Great, from 1775 to 1778. In 1779, he was sent on an embassy to Catharine II of Russia, whose favor he secured by his gallantry, and by composing and taking part himself in comedies at her private theatre. In 1795, he concluded a grand triple alliance between Russia, England and Austria, against the French republic. Being recalled to Vienna the following year, he was again employed in political negotiations. He was one of the plempotentiaries who signed the treaty of Campo-Formo, between Austria and France, in October, 1797, and was also sent to the congress of Rastadt. In the following year, he held a conference, at Seltz, with Francis de Neufchateau, a member of the executive directory, respecting the insult offered to Bernadone at Vienna. He then returned to Petersburg, whence he was summoned, and sent to Luneville; and there concluded a treaty of perce with France, in February, 1801. A few months after, he was appointed immister of state and vice-chancellor for the department of foreign affairs at Vienna. In 1805, he followed the Austrian court to Olimitz, and died at Vienna in 1809.

COBESTZL, John Philip, count de, cousm of the last mentioned individual, was born in Carniola in 1741. He was made a comsellor of finance in 1762, and afterwards privy counsellor at Brussels. In 1779, he was employed as a diplomatist at the con-

clusion of the peace of Teschen. In 1790, he was sent to Brahant to treat with the insurgent Netherlanders; but the states. refused to receive him, on which he retired to Luxembourg, where he published a declaration, by which the emperor of Germany revoked all those edicts which had caused the insurrection, and recatablished the previous state of affairs. His. Tailure on this occasion probably prevented him from being again employed till 1801. when he was sent ambassador to Paris, through the credit of his cousin, and remained there till 1805. He died Aug. 30. 1819. He was the last of the family of Cobentzl.

Cost (in Chinese, Shamo); a great desert in the central part of Asia, extending from the sources of the Indus and Ganges, beyond those of the Amour, from 23 to 24 degrees of longitude in length, and varying from 3 to 10 degrees of latitude in breadth. But little is known of this immense (region, of about 847,000 square miles in extent. Its great elevation, and the salt with which it is impregnated, render it very cold. The frightful uniformity of vast fields of sand and gravel is hardly broken by the small rivers, haed with narrow tracts of pasture, by the salt lakes, and a few fertile ouses interspersed here and there, like islands in the ocean A few little hills rise out of the general level, which extends all mound the traveller, as far as the eye can reach. The small Mongolan horses wander about in large droves, and the wild djiggetar snatches a masty meal from the pastures. The camel is commonly used by the Mon gols to transport burdens.

COBLENTZ (anciently Confluentia, from its signation at the confluence of the Rhueand Moselle), formerly the residence of the elector of Treves, then chief place of the French department of the Rhine and Moselle, now the capital of the Prussian circle of government (Regioningsbezirk) of Coblemy (belonging to the province of the Lower Rhme), containing 1928 square unles, with 337,470 inhabitants, is situated on a most charming spot. Opposite Coblentz is Thalchrenbreitstem, a small place on the right bank of the majestic river, at the foot of the rock, on which the Prus sums rebuilt the fortifications of Ehrenbreastein, and rendered it one of the most remarkable productions of mulitary archi-. tecture. Over the Moselle is a bridge of 536 paces, resting upon 14 arches of stone From this bridge there is one of the finest views on the Rhine. Coblentz (1050 houses and 14,000 inhabitants) cousists

By this term this modest gentleman designates Indian corn or marze, the cultivation of which he has been endeavoring to introduce among his countrymen

of the old city and the new, or Clementcity, and is, in general, well built. There are several fine public buildings. An aqueduct constructed by the last elector, brings the finest water from a height near Metternich, over the Moselle bridge, into all quarters of the city. The chief articles of commerce are the Moselle wines and French wines. About one mile from the city is a building, formerly a Carthusian , monastery, which is well worthy the at-tention of travellers, on account of the view which it affords of the two rivers on which the city stands. This building is · now changed into a fort called Hynnen - by any sudden motion. In case a bite is kopf. On the other side of the Moselle fort Francis is situated. These two forts protect the city on the left bank of the Rhine, and some other fortifications are to be added. These works, with those of the strong fortress of Ehrenbreitstein (q. v.), will render Coblentz one of the strongest fortresses, and a very important defence to Germany, particularly to the Prussian monarchy. The confluence of the two rivers has always, given Coblentz great inditary importance, even in the time of the Romans, who built a strong camp here. On the road from Coblemz to Cologue is the monument of general Marcean, mentioned by lord Byron in Childe. Harold's Pilgrimage.

COBRA DA CAPPLLO; the Portuguese trivial name of the ripera naja; the hooded snake, or viper, of the English: supent a lunctes of the French; a repule of the most venomous nature, found in various degree- of abundance in different hot countries of the old continent, and in the islands adjacent. The species of the viper kind are all remarkable for the manner in which they spread out or flatten the sides of the neck and head when disturbed or irritated. In the cobra da capello, the conformation necessary to this action is found in the most perfect cendition, as the animal is provided with a set of ribs or bony processes, moved by appropriate muscles on the sides of the neck, which, when expanded, give the anterior part of the body the appearance of an overhanging arch or hood; on the unddle of which, posterior to the eyes, is a greenish-yellow mark, resembling the run of a pair of spectacles. From this mark the French name is derived. When disturbed by the approach of an individual, or any noise, the cobra raises the anterior part of its body, so as to appear to stand erect, expands its hood, and is prepared to inflict a deadly wound. So exceedingly poisonous is its bite, that, in numerous instances

which are well authenticated, death has followed within a few minutes; under ordinary circumstances, a few hours in the longest term that intervenes from the infliction of the bite till the death of the sufferer, where prompt measures for his relief have not been resorted to. So pumerous are these dreadful vipers in some parts of India and Africa, that they are frequently found in dwelling-houses, and, in some instances, have taken up their quarters in the beds. Death of necessity must follow, under such circumstances, should the animal be alarmed or irritated received from this (or, indeed, any other) vendmous creature, the first thing to be done is to make a firm and well-sustained pressure beyond the wound, on the side nearest the heart. The excellent experiments of doctor Pennock, which have been already referred to, prove that's sufficunt degree of pressure thus kept up will prevent the poison from affecting the system; and this is rendered evident by the good effects derived from ligatures applied around bitten limbs, above the wound, by the natives of India, though such ligatures generally act but imperfirstly. The good effects of pressure, combaned with the advantage of withdrawing the poison, will be obtained by applying a well exhausted enpping-glass over the wound; a substitute for which may almost always be made of a draking glass. small bottle, &c., if proper cups be not at hand. It would be well for persons tratcling or residing where these vipers are common, to be provided with a bottle of volatile alkalı, or spirits of hartshorn, which, applied to the wound several times a day, and taken internally, in doses of 30° to 40 drops, repeated according to circumstances, will avert the injurious consequence of the poison. To heighten the currosity of the multitude, the jugglers of India select these cenomous reptiles for their exhibitions, and, having extracted their fangs, keep them in cages or baskets, to exhibit as dancing snakes. When the carge is opened, the juggler begins playing upon a pipe or other instrument; whereupon the viper assumes the erect attitude, distends its hood, and remains balancing itself in this position until the music is suspended. It is, however, most probable, that this viper, in common with lizards and other animals, is peculiarly af-fected by musical sounds. A friend, who passed a considerable time in the kingdom of Ava, informed us, that a cobra entered a room while a gentleman was playing on

**VOL. 111.** 

COBRA DA GAPEDIO COCCUS. him so long as the music continued; halted, and when it was entirely stopped, it gradually withdrew. This circumstance 'induced them to spare the viper, which uniformly made its appearance on several successive days when the flute was played. With the exception of the spectacle mark on the back of the neck, and its distensible hood, the cobra is not especially distinguished from other vipers. Its colors are dull, being a dark-greenish-brown, lighter towards the inferior parts.

tral Germany, bounded by a number of other small German principalities. country is mostly mountainous, with fertile plains: minerals and forests abound m it. According to the law of August, 1821, regulating the constitution of the principality, there is a body of representatives, who have a voice in legislation, and particularly in the imposition of taxes. According to the law of Dec. 11, 1809, the feudal privileges were to be abolished by degrees. Coburg has one vote in the gencral assembly of the diet, and is bound to furnish a contingent of 800 men to the forces of the German confederation. The duke of Saxe-Coburg received, in the division of the former dukedom of Gotha-Altenburg (edict of Nov. 15, 126), the ducky of Gotha, and several smaller termtories; so that the dominions of the present duke of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha comprise 969 square miles, and 139,440 inhabitants," of which 201 square miles and 83,000 inhabitants are comprised in the principality of Coburg and its dependencies, which were subject to the duke previous to the large accession of territory just mentioned.

Coburg, the capital of the above dukedom, is situated in the beautiful Itzgrand (valley of the Itz), with \$100 inhabitants, an excellent school (gymnasium úlustic, , several manufactories, two fairs, and con-\*\* \*\* derable trade.

COBURG. Frederic Josius, duke of Saxe-Coburg, an Austrian field-mar-hal, was born in 1737; in 1788, took Chocznii, and, m connexion with the Russian general Suwaroff, defeated the Turks at Focsam in 1789, and conquered Bucharest. 1793, he commanded against the French, was victorious at Aldenhoven and Neerwinden, took Valenciennes, Condé, Cambray and Landrécy; but when the duke of York separated himself from the Austrians in order to besiege Dunkirk, Coburg was beaten at Maubeuge, Clerfayt at Tournay, and the English at Dunkirk; and, in consequence of this, Coburg was again , defeated at Fleuria and Aldenhoven. He retreated over the Khine, gave up his command, and died in his native city in 1815.

COBURG, SAXE, prince Leopold of. (See Leopold, and Charlotte Augusta.)

Cocagna; an annual public festival instituted by the government of Naples, in which food and wine in fountains and from barrels are given to the people. Hence it is said of a country of comfort and plenty, "It is the land of Cockaigne." Something similar were the congiuria of Contro; a Saxon principality in cen-, the ancient Romans.-Mats de cocagne; . masts be smeared with soap for the public amusement, which those who have courage for the enterprise endeavor to climb, for the sake of a prize which is fixed on the top.

> Coccen, Henry, born, 1644, at Bremen, studied at Leyden in 1667, and, in 1670, m England; was, in 1672, professor of law at Heidelberg, and, in 1688, at Utrecht; in 1690, regular professor of laws at Frankfort on the Oder; repaired to the Hagne, m 1702, without giving up his office, on occasion of the disputes as to the hereditary succession of the house of Orange; received for his services, in 1713, the rank of baron of the empire, and died in 1719; As a lawyer, he was the oracle of many courts, and his system of German public law (juris publici prudentie) was almost a universal academical text-book of this -ca nee - Coccen did not owe his profound juridical learning <0 much to skilful teachers, for he hadonly heard lecture southe institutes, but to his great industry, which he carried to such an extent, that he allowed but a few hours each night to sleep, lived with the utmost temperance, and even abstanced several years from taking dinner. He was mild, obliging, and of an exemplary honesty and disinterestedness. His disputations Exercitationes curiosa, and Dissert. varu Argumenti, form 4 vols. Ito.; his Consilia et Deductiones, 2 vols. m folio; his Grotius illustratus, 3 vols. m folio.—His eldest son, Samuel, baron of Coccen, born, 1679, at Heidelberg, was, m 1702, professor at Frankfort on the Oder, and rose, through many degrees, to the dignity of grand chancellor of all the Prussian dominions. He died in 1755.— Charles Louis Coccen, who died in 1808, in Prussia, was the last of this distinguished family.

> Cocces, in zoology; a genus of insects of the order of heteroptera, family gallin-Geperie character: antenna filisecta. form, of 10 or 11 articulations in both

shorter than the body; rostrum REXES. pectorale, conspicuous only in the females: males with two large incumbent wings; females apterous, subtomentose, fixed, and becoming gall-shaped or shield-shaped after impregnation. These little insects are remarkable for many peculiarities in their habits and conformation. The males are elongated in their form, have long, large wings, and are destitute of any obvious means of suction; the females, on the contrary, are of a rounded or oval form. have no wings, but possess a beak or sucker, attached to the breast, by which they fix themselves to the plants on which they live, and through which they draw , their nourishment. At a certain period of their life, the females attach themselves to the plant or tree which they inhabit, and remain thereon immovable during the rest of their existence. In this situation, they are unpregnated by the male; after winch, their body increases considerably, m many species losing its original form, and assuming that of a gall, and, after depositing the eggs, drying up, and forming a habitation for the young. This change of form is not, however, constant to all the species, which has given rise to a division of the genus into two sections:those which assume a gall shape, in which the rings of the abdomen are totally obinteraced, are called kermes by some anthors; and those which retain the distinct sections of the abdomen, notwithstanding the great enlargement of the body, are called true cocci, or cochineal. They are impregnated in the spring, ratter having passed the winter fixed to plants, particularly in the bifurcations, and under the small branches. Towards the commencement of summer, they have acquired their greatest size, and resemble a little convex mass, without the least appearance of head or feet, or other organs. Many species are covered with a sort of cottony down. Each female produces thousands of eggs, which are expelled by a small aperture at the extremity of the body. As soon as they are produced, they pass immediately under the parent insect, which becomes their covering and guard; by degrees, her body dries up, and the two membranes flatten, and form a sort of shell, under which the eggs, and subsequently the young ones, are found coccated. Soon after the death of the mother, the young insects leave their hidingplace, and seek their nourishment on the leaves, the juices of which they suck through the inflected rostrum, placed beneath their breast.—But it is with a view

to their importance as an article of commerce, arising from their use in the arts, that the insects of this genus are particu-larly interesting. When it is considered that the most brilliant dyes and the most beautiful pigments, as well as the basis of the most useful kinds of cement, are their product, it will be acknowledged, that to none of the insect tribe, except, perhaps, to the bee and the gall insect, are we more indebted than to these singular and apparently insignificant little beings. 'Kermes, the scarlet grain of Poland, cochineal, laclake, lac-dye, and all the modifications of sgum-lac, are either the perfect in ecte dried, or the secretions which they form. The first mentioned substance is the coccus ilicis. It is found in great abundance upon a species of evergreen oak (quercus coccifera), which grows in many parts of Europe, and has been the basis of a crimson dve from the earliest ages of the arts. It was known to the Phænicians before the time of Moses; the Greeks used it under the name of kokkos, and the Arabians under that of kermes. From the Greek and Arabian terms, and from the Latin name requiculatum, given to it when it was known to be the product of a worm, have been derived the Latin coccineus, the French cramous and rermeil, and the Linglish crimson and vermilion. The early Jews, the Greeks, the Romans, and, until lately, the tapestry-makers of Europe, have used it as the most brilliant red dye known.". The searlet gram of Poland (coccus Poloniens) is found on the roots of the scleranthus perennis, which grows in large quantities in the north-east of Europe, and in some parts of England. This, as well as several other species, which afford a similar red dye, have, however, tallen into disuse since the introduction of cochineal. This valuable and most important material is the coccus cacti (Lm.), a native of Mexico, and an inhabitant of a species of cactus, called nopal, which was long thought to be the cactus cochinilifer (Lin.), but which Humboldt considers a distinct species. The trees which produce the cochineal are cultivated for this purpose in immense numbers; and the operation of collecting the insects, which is exceedingly tedious, is performed by the women, who brush them off with the tail of a squirrel or stag. The insects are killed by being thrown into boiling water, placed in ovens, or dried in the sun. Those which are killed by the latter method fetch a higher price, from the white powder, covering the insect, being still retained, and thus preventing, in a great measure, the adulteration of the

The quantity annually exported from South America is immense; the export value being not less than £500,000. Cochineal was cultivated by the Mexican's previous to the conquest, but probably not to any great extent. Cortez received orders from the Spanish court to pay atten-, tion to this valuable dye; and, from that time, the quantity increased very rapidly; but, the trade having been carried on only through Spain, it was not until lately so generally used as it is likely to be in future. Cochmeal is also raised in Peru, and several other parts of Spanish America, and becomes every year an article. of greater importance to the commerce of that country. The finest, however, contimes to be prepared in Mexico and Guatimala. In the East Indies, a very inferior kind has been reared, which produces a coarse scarlet dve. Havu and Brazil have tried to encourage the propagation of this insect.—The natural dye which this little animal affords in such abundance is a deep crimson; and the color called scarlet was not discovered until the effect produced by infusing the animal matter in a solution of tip was nonced by a German chemist, in 1643; after which a manufactory of this color was established in London.—Lac is a secretion from a species of coccus inhabiting India, where it is found in astom-long aboutdance. In its native state, not yet separated from the twig on which it has been deposited, it is called stick-lac: when separated, powdered, and the coloring mater washed from it, it is denominated seedlur; lump-lar when melted into cakes, and shell-lac when purified and formed into tinn lamina. Lac-lake is the coloring mutter of stick-lac precipitated from an alkaline lixivium, by means of alum.

Cochabavba; a town of Bohvia, in the province of Cochabanda, in a fertile valley; 90 miles N. N. W. La Plata, 140 S. W. Potos; lon. 67° 24′ W.; lat. 18° 25′ N. The province has a mild chimate, and produces an abundance of grain, also sugar and cattle. Population, about 100,000.

COCHIS, Charles Nicolas, engraver, barn in Paris in 1688, practised painting till his 23d year, which was of considerable advantage to him in the art of engraving, to which he afterwards devoted himself. In 1731, he became a member of the academy of Paris, and died in 1754. His son, of the same name, devoted himself to etching, rather than to engraving. His productions are superior to those of his father. The collection of his works contains more than 1500 pieces, among which

there are 112 likenesses, in the form of inclals, of the most renowned French scholars and artists of his time, who were almost all his friends. We have, besides his essays in the memoirs of the academy, several printed works of his, which contain interesting observations on different subjects of art, for instance, on Herculane-um. His frontispieces and vignettes are remarkable for neatness and taste. His views of 16 French scaports are of great value. His composition, in general, is rich, delicate and pleasing. He was a member of the academy, and occupied

severyl places of importance. Cocurs-Cursa, empire of, consists of a part of the kingdom of Kamboja (Cambodial, of Cochin-China Proper, and of Tongum: the two last are called, by the natives, by the common appellation Annamt. This empire is bounded on the west by Saam and Laos, on the north by Chma, the sea is the southern and eastern boundary. Cochin-China extends from 8 25' to about 23' N. lat., the extreme length being a little over 1000 miles; the breadth varies from 70 to 220 miles; its area is estimated at about 135,000 square nules. It is politically divided into the vice-royalnes of Kanboja and Tongun, and Cochin-China, which is administered by the king in person. The country is trayersed by a leaty chain of mountains, from which numerous small rivers descend into the sea, forming numerous sand-banks along the coast. The Kamboja or Mecon, and the Song-kov or river of Tonquing are considerable extreams. The chinate is healthy. In Cochin-China, the ramy season continues from October till March, and neither the heat nor cold is excessive. In Tongum, on the other hand, the rams commence in May, and terminate in August. The heat and coul are both extreme. The gulf of Tonques and the neighboring seas are exposed to the ravages of the typhoons, which are rarely felt below the latitude of 16 N. The forests furnish the engle-wood, the stick-lac, and valuable tunber for building and furniture. The orange and the licht are of excellent quality. Rice, sugarcane, betel, indigo, cotton and potatoes are the principal productions of agriculture. The true communion is a native of Cochar Clima. The mulberry is extensively cultreated for the silk-worm, and the teashrub is common in the country. Elephants, used in war, buffaloes, which are yoked to the plough, tigers, rhinoceroses, the wild boar, the horse, which is small, the ox, a small, reddish-brown ammal, and

quadrupeds. Sheep are very rare. poultry is numerous and very good. seas and rivers abound with fish, which supply a great number of the inhabitants with food. Neither the flesh of the buffalo nor that of the ox is eaten by the Cochin-Chinese, and milk they hold in abhorrence, considering it as blood. The Annam race, comprehending the Cochin-Chinese and the Tonquinese, are a short, but active and hardy people. In the useful arts, they have made considerable receive all their books from the Chinese. In writing the Chinese characters, the elementary ones are the same, but they make considerable changes in combining them. Their manners are lively and cheerful; their character mild and docile. There are two classes, the commonalty and nobility or mandarms. The government is despote; the chief instrument is the rod, which is freely administered. The general administration is conducted by a supreme council and six ministers of state. Beside these, there are three other superior officers, called kun-the viceroys of Tonquin and Kamboja, and the immster of elephants, who is properly prime minister and minister for foreign affairs. Every male inhabitant, between 18 and 60 years of age, is at the disposal of the state; and, in Cochin-China, every third man on the rolls performs actual service during every other three years. These conscripts are called soldiers, and wear umforms, but are, in reality, engaged as laborers on the public works and in the memal service of the public officers. The royal guard of 30,000 men is always stationed near the person of the king. The ordinary force consists of about 360,000 troops and 800 elephants, cavalry not being at all used. The effective force, regularly armed and disciplined, is not more than 50,000. They are armed partly with muskets and partly with spears. There is no established religion in Annam. The immisters of religion are few and little respected: the temples mean and little frequented. The lower orders, in general, follow the worship of Buddha or Fo. Persons of rank are of the sect of Confucius; but the only part of the religious behef, which assumes a systematic form, is the worship of the dead. Polygamy is permitted to any extent, as the wife is a mere chattel purchased by the husband. Marriages, however, are indissoluble, except by mu-. tual consent. The population has been

A' 31 several species of deer, are the principal estimated, by some writers, at 22,000,000, The but does not, probably, exceed 10,000,000, The perhaps not 6,000,000. The direct commercial intercourse between Cochin-China and Europe and America, has been very inconsiderable, but is now on the increase. The foreign trade, by sea, is principally with China, Siam, and the British ports within the straits of Malacca. The principal places from which it is conducted are Saigon in Kamboja, Hue, the capital of the empire, in Cochin-China, and Cachao in Tonquin. The exports are cinprogress. Their language is monosyllabic. namon, pepper, areca, raw silk, sugar, They have no literature of their own, and dye-woods, cardamons, ivory, elephant's and rhinoceros' hides, &c.-According to the Chinese annals, Annam was conquered by Chma, B. C. 214, and colonized by numerous bodies of Chinese. After vanous revolutions, in which the Chinese yoke was thrown off, and Tonquin and Cochin-China were alternately conquerors, the present order of things was estabhshed by events which took place at the end of the 18th century. The Taysons, three brothers from the lowest ranks of the people, had rendered themselves so , powerful as to obtain possession of nearly the whole country; the king had perished in the war against them. His young son, Gialong having been intrusted to the care of the bishop of Adran, a French missionary, obtained, through his influence, the assistance of some Europeans, by whose means he formed a navy, disciplined his troops, and constructed fortifications in the European manner. He succeeded, after a struggle of 12 years, in subduing the Tayson, conquered Tonquin in 1802, Kamboja in 1800, and left the empire, of his death, in 1819, to his present majesty, Meng-meng, his illegitimate son, who, in 1821, was regularly invested with the government of Annam by the court of Chma. (See La Bissachere's État actuel Mu Tunquin, de la Cochinchine, &c., Paris, 1812; White's Voyage to the China Sea, Boston, 1823: and particularly Crawford's Embassy to Siam and Cochin-China, Loudon, 1828.)

COCHENEAL. (See Coccus.)
COCHENE. Alexander Thomas, lord; born Dec. 2, 1775; a naval officer, distinguished by his boldness and success; eldest son of the well-known chemist, lord Archibald Cochrane, earl of Dandonald; educated by his mucle, admiral sir Alex. Forester Cochrane, who, in 1814, took the capital of the U. States, and burned the public buildings. In February, 1814-lord Cochrane, the subject of this article, then a member of parliament, was accused of

having spread a false report of the death of · Napoleon, for the purpose of affecting the price of the stocks, was condemned to the pillory, to a year's imprisonment, and a fine of £1000, and excluded from parliament and from the order of the Bath. The royal elemency spared him the ex-posure in the pillory. The fine was paid by his friends. In 1818, lord Cochrane took the command of the naval force of Chile, which he conducted with success, and afterwards of that of Brazil. In 1823, the emperor Pedro created him marquis of Maranham. After the peace between sion, returned to England, and, in 1836, intended to enter the Greek service as admiral; but the steam-boats built for the use of the Greeks in England proved. unfit for their purpose. He remained a long time at Marseilles and Genoa, waiting for other vessels, finally entered the Greek service in 1827, in which he continued until the following year, and then returned to England.

Cochrane, captain John Dundas, nephew of the above, travelled on foot through France, Spain and Portugal, then through Russia to Kamtschatka (see Narrative of a Pedestrian Journey through Russia, & c., 1820-23, London, 1824), and died in 1825, in Colombia, whither he had gone with a view of travelling through South

America on foot.

Cock (phasianus gallus, L.); the wellknown chieflam of the poultry-yard, and rural announcer of the passage of time; whose shrill clarion, heard in the still watches of the might, inspires the invalid with cheering hopes of the coming dawn, and informs the way-worn traveller of his approach to the habitations of his kind; the appropriate emblem of vigilance, virility, warlike daring and gallantry: domesticated, but not subdued, he marches at the head of his train of wives and offspring, with a port of proud defiance, not less ready to pumsh aggression against his dependents than to assert his superiority upon the challenge of any rival. At what time this valuable species of physician was brought under the immediate control of man, it is now impossible to determine; but, as the forests of many parts of India still abound with several varieties of the cock in the wild or natural condition, it is quite reasonable to conclude that the race was first domesticated in the Eastern countries, and gradually extended thence to the rest of the world. It is stated that the cock was first introduced into Europe from Persia; and Aristophanes speaks of

it as the Persian bird. Nevertheless, it has been so long established throughout the western regions, as to render it impossible to trace its progress from its nalive wilds. -The cock has his head surmounted by a notched, crimson, fleshy substance, called comb: two pendulous fleshy bodies of the same color, termed wattles, hang under his The hen has also a smilar, but not so large nor so vividly colored exerescence on her head. The cock is provided with a sharp horn or spur on the outside of his tarsus, with which he inflicts severe wounds; the hen, instead of a spin, has a Portugal and Brazil, he took his dismis-current knot or tubercle. There is, in both sexes, below the ear, an oblong spot, the anterior edge of Which is reddish, and the remainder white. The feathers arise, in pairs, from each sheath, touching by their points within the skin, but diverging in their course outwards. On the neck, they are long, narrow and fleating; on the rump, they are of the same form, but drooping laterally over the extremity of the wings, which are quite short, and terminute at the origin of the tail, the plumes of which are vertical. In the centre of the cock's tail are two long feathers, which fall backwards in a graceful arch, and add great beauty to the whole aspect of the fowl. It is in yain to offer any description of the color of the plumage, as it is primitely varied, being in some breeds of the greatest richness and elegance, and in others of the simplest and plainest fine. Except in the pure white breeds, the plumage of the cock is always more splended than that of the hen. We cannot contemplate the cock, when in good health and full plumage, without being struck with his apparent consciousness of persorral beauty and courage. His movements and gestures seem all to be influenced by such feelings, and his stately march and frequent trumphant crowing express confidence in his strength and bravery. The salacity of the cock is exce-sive, and one is known to be quite sufficient for the fecundation of 10 or 15 His sexual powers are matured when he is about six months old, and his full vigor lasts for about three years, varymg in earliness of maturity and duration with his size and the chmate. The hen is ready to commence laying after she has moulted or changed her plumage, and is not at the trouble of making a regular nest. A simple hole, seratched in the ground, in some retired place, serves her purpose, and she generally lays from 12 to 15 eggs before she begins to sit upon them for the purpose of hatching. Having

thus taken possession of her nest, she becomes a model of enduring patience, remaining fixed in her place until the urgency of hunger forces her to go in search of food. A short time suffices; she runs eagerly about in quest of sustenance, and soon resumes her charge. Her eggs are diligently turned and shifted from the centre to the edge of the nest, so that each may receive a due degree of genial warmth, and it is not until about 21 days have elapsed that the incubation is completed. The strongest of the progeny then begin to chip the shell with the bill, and are successively enabled to burst their brittle prisons. She continues upon the mest till the whole are hatched and dry, and then leads them forth in search of food. The hen, except when accompamed by a young brood, is always tunid, and ready to fly from disturbance; but when she is engaged in discharging the duties of materinty, her whole mature is She fiercely and vigorously changed. attacks all aggressors, watches over the safety of her young with the utmost jealousy, neglects the demands of her own appetite to divide the food she may obtain among her nurshngs, and labors with untiring diligence to provide them sufficient sustenance. The limits within which we are restricted forbids the attempt to give a complete history of this valuable species, which is, in every point of view, interesting. To detail all that would be necessary to illustrate it, as an object of natural Instory and domestic economy. the modes of breeding, rearnly, preparing for the table, &c.,—would require a small volume. Fortunately, almost every one, who will employ his own observation, may readily arrive at such knowledge. Very full histories of the species are given by Buffon and other standard authors, Temminek has, perhaps, offered the most complete, in his Histoire des Gallinaces. (See Incubation.)

Cock-Fighting was an anusement of the Greeks and Romans. An annual cockfight was instituted at Athens, and Eschanes reproaches Timarchus, and Plato the Athennans in general, with their fondness for the cock-pit. The breeds of Rhodes and of Tanagra in Breetia were in great esteem in Greece. The Romans seem to have used quaits and partridges also for this purpose. Mark Antony was a patron of the pit, but, in his matches with Octavius, it was observed that Caesar's cocks were always victorious. This barbarous and brutalizing spectacle, it is well known, has been a favorite sport with the English.

although repeatedly denounced and prohibited by the laws; but it is now deservedly in disrepute. Many nice rules are given for the training and dieting of cocks, and for the choice of individual combat-"The best cocks," says one of the unts. many English writers on this subject, "should be close hitters, deadly heelers, steady fighters, good mouthers, and come to every point." Great difference of opinion has prevailed as to the size most proper for game-cocks. Hoyle settles it at not less than 4 lbs. 8 oz., nor above 4 lbs. 10 oz. The strain from which the cock is chosen ought to be distinguished for victory. For the combat, they are armed with steel or silver spurs, or gaffles. The place appropriated to fighting is called the pit, and consists generally of a mound of earth, covered with sod, and surrounded by seats in circular tiers. The battle is conducted by two setters, who place the cocks beak to beak. When they are once puted, neither of the setters-to can touch his cock, so long as they continue to fight, unless their weapons get entangled.— Cock-fighting is prevalent in China, Persia and Malacca.

Coch-Pit; the place/where cock-fights are held.—In navigation, the cock-pit of a man-of-war compuses the apartments of the surgeon and his mates, being the place where the wounded men are dressed in battle, or at other times. It is smated under the layer deal

under the lower-deck.

Cockade (from rocarde): a plume of cock's feathers, with which the Croats adorned their caps. A bow of colored ribbons was adopted for the cockade in France, which soon became a national emblem and party signal. During the French revolution, the tri-colored cockade became the national distinction. National cockades are now to be found over all Europe. In some countries, the law requires every entitien to wear one, and the deprivation of themais a disgraceful punishment, as in Prussia. In point of fact, the rule requiring them to be worn is but little observed.

Cocke haffer; a species of coleopterous insect, belonging to the genus melolontha (Fab.), remarkable for the length of its life, in the worm or larve state, as well as for the injury it does to vegetation, after it has attained its perfect condition. By Linnaus, this species, which is also known by the trivial names of may-bug, dorr-beetle, &.c., was placed in the genus scarabaus, or beetle (see Beetle); and it is true, that the maglolontha have the general aspect, conformation and habits of the beetles. They dif-

for from them, however, in having the scarcely less than six months. To underbody less depressed, swelling out above and below into a sort of hump. The head . is engaged in the corselet, which is slightly narrowed in front, and most commonly attached to the dyna behind. The antenna, which are foliated in a mass; are composed of 10 joints, the last of which terminates the mass like a plume, which the insect displays at will, sometimes to the number of seven plates, larger and more perfectly developed in the males than females. The bodies of melolontha are very often velvetlike, and covered with hairs and imbricated scales, differently colored, like ther' butterflies. Some species are very highly adorned in this way, and present combinations of brilliant and beautiful colors.—The may-bug (melolontha vulgaris) is hatched from an egg which the parent deposits in a hole about six inches deep, which she digs for the purpose. Her eggs are oblong, of a bright yellow color, and are placed regularly side by side, though not included in any common envelope. the end of about three months, the insects come out of the eggs as small grubs or maggots, and feed upon the roots of vegetables in the vicinity with great voracity. As they increase in size and strength, they become able to make their way with ease under ground, and continue their ravages upon the roots of plants. When the worm has attained its greatest size, icis an inch and a half long by more than half an mch thick, perfectly winte, with a red head, having a semi-circular lip, and a strong pair of jaws, with which it cuts the roots, for the purpose of sucking out their fluids. It has two antenna, but is destitute of eyes. The subterranean existence of these animals is extended to four years, and, as their food is not accessible during the cold season, they bury themselves sufficiently deep in the soil to be safe from the frost, and pass the winter in a state of torpidity. When the spring restores them to annuation and activity, they revisit the upper stratum of the ground, having, at each annual awakening, undergone a change of skin .- At the end of the third year, they have acquired their full growth as larves; they then cease cating, and void the residue of their food, preparatory to the change or metamorphosis which they are about to undergo. If opened at this period, their strongly muscular integument is found to be completely filled with a mass of white, oily matter, resembling cream, apparently ined as a reserve for the alimentation of the insect during the exertod of its remaining in the form of a nymph, which is

**可以选** go their final change, these larves bore into the earth to the depth of two feet or more; where they form a rounded ravity, the sides of which are smoothed and consolidated by the application of a fluid disgorged from their mouths. The larve being thus secured, it soon begins to contract in length, swells, and bursts its skin, coming therefrom as a soft, whitish nymph, having all the members shrunk and folded, unrformly arranged in the same manner, ex-Inbiting the rudiments of dytra, antenna, &c. The insect then gradually acquires consistence and color, becoming of a brownish hire. This state continues about three months, by the end of which time, the insect disengages its wings, limbs and antenna, and assumes its rank as a perfect colcopterous insect. It is in the month of February that the larve changes to nymph. During the months of March and April, it approaches the surface of the earth, and, about the beginning of May, escapes from its grovelling mode of life to soar through the air, disporting in sunshine and shade From this circumstance, the German trival name of Maikafer, and the English may-bug or beetle, have been given. The term cockchaffer, applied to the common species, is evidently made up from the German.—Cockehaffers, in their perfect stare, pass the greater part of the day in a state of slumber, or quietude, on the leaves of the trees which they feed on, unless disturbed by the too great heat of the sun, which arouses them to fly to the shade. At eventide, the whole of this drawsy population take wing, for the sake of procuring food. Their flight is loud, hunning, and generally with the wind; and so little is the insect capable of directing its course, that it strikes violently against every object in the way. This peculiarity has given origin, in France, to a proverbial expression, applied to a thoughtless, blundering person, who is said to be as stupid as a may-bug; Étourdi comme un hanneton .-The generative act of these insects has some peculiarities. The male, which is generally smaller than the female, and always cognizable by the greater size of his foliated *unternae*, previous to this operation, is very active. As soon, however, as this object is accomplished, he seems to full into a state of faintness and lethargy, and the female, in flying from place to place, carries him with her, hanging in a helpless, inverted position, with his back downwards, and his feet in the air. The male organs are quite singular, being formed in such a manner that the organ

conveying the fecundating fluid is intro-duced by the aid of two elongated horns. At some seasons of the year, when the which, by their approximation, form a sort of stiff point. These two pieces lie over another, within which are muscles that, at, the proper moment, contract, and thus. dilate the sheath, which may be compared to a surgical dilator. To this expansion of the sheath the adherence of the sexes during the act of generation is owing. The males perish as soon as they have fulfilled this great object of their being, as they The fecundated thenceforth cease to eat. female forsakes the trees for the earth, into which, with her claws, she bores a hole six or eight inches deep, in which she places from 50 to 80 eggs. This completes the circle of her actions, and she soon after dies; though it has been said, without any foundation in observation or analogy, that the females, after laying their eggs, resume their former habits, and live among the

Cock-Fighting. (See Cock.)

COCK-PIT. (See Cock.) COCKROACH (blatta, Lin.); a genus of insects belonging to the orthopterous or straight-winged order, characterized by an oval, elongated, depressed body, which is smooth on its superior surface. The head is inclined, short, and concealed under the corselet; the antenna are long, bristly, formed of numerous pieces, and inserted in a groove within the eyes. The corselet is scutiform, covering the head and origin of the elytra; the abdomen is terminated by two conical appendages. The legs are beset with lattle spines; the feet are long and compressed; the tarsi have five joints. They have a longitudinal crop or craw; the gizzard, or muscular stomach, is internally provided with strong hooked teeth: from 8 to 10 caca are found about the pylorus.—These insects are among the most disagreeable of the annoyances to which the dwellings of man are subject, and, where their multiplication is permitted, the rayages they commit are extensive and vexations. They are all nocturnal, and exceedingly agile; their flattened bodies allow them to hide, with ease, in every crevice, whence they sally forth in hordes during the night, to devour every sort of provision which is not secured from their voracity. Lake all other depredators, they are thrown into confusion and put to flight by the presence of light, whence they were, in ancient times, appropriately called lucifuga, or light-shunners. Their destructiveness is not confined to articles of provision for the table; silk, woollen, and even cotton cloths are devoured, or ren-

male cockroaches fly about, they are very troublesome, especially about twilight, when they deah into rooms, and often strike against the faces of those present, to the great alarm of females, who generally dread them excessively. The presence of a light, it is true, would secure us against such invasions from the cockroach, but a great number of other nocturnal insects would be attracted by its glare, and induce a greater degree of annoyance. When a cockroach takes refuge or seeks concealment upon any person, he will inflict a smart bite, if particularly hurt or alarmed.—The sapient Sancho Panza declares, that there is a remedy for every thing but death; and it is truly happy for mankind, that the multiplication of this postilent race may be repressed by aid of their own voracity. Ifto a quantity of Indian corn meal about one third of white or red lead is added, and the maxture is moistened with molasses, so as to make it moderately adhesive, the cockroaches will greedily devour it. The repetition of this poisoned food for a few nights is generally sufficient to reduce their numbers to a very few, even in the inost infected houses, and will eventually cause the destruction of the whole. They may also be poisoned with preparations of arsenic, sublimate, &c., mixed with sugar or molasses, of which they are very fond. Traps especially designed for their capture are sometimes to be found at the potteries. A paste-board or card cover, well balanced upon two pms, and placed upon the edge of a vessel, nearly filled with molasses and water, makes a very good trap. The dish should be so placed, that they can readily mount upon the cover, which revolves on its axis whenever the equilibrium is disturbed, and throws the cockroaches into the fluid.—Cockrbaches, like other orthopterous insects, do not undergo a complete metamorphosis: the larves and nymphs resemble the perfect insect, except that they have merely, andiments of wings. The females lay their eggs successively and singly. egg has a very singular appearance, being large, cylindric, rounded at both ends, and having a projecting dentated line or keel, throughout its length, on one side. This egg is half as large as the belly of the female, and she carries it for seven or eight days, attached to the posterior part of the abdomen, and, finally, attaches it to some solid body, by means of a gummy fluid.—The species of cockroach at present determined, are about 12 in number.

mine in migrations and including

Among these, the blatta Americana and the . the filbert in taste, but are of much firmer blatta Orientalis are the especial pests of, consistence, are used as food in various our country. The first mentioned is the modes of dressing, and sometimes are cut Largest of the genus, and grows to be two or three inches long, including the anteninc. Throughout the southern portion of this continent, and in the West India islands, this species (blatta Americana), called Kakkerlac by the Dutch, is very numerous and troublesome. The blatta Orientalis, or common kitchen cockroach, was originally brought from Asia to Europe, and thence to America. It is now thoroughly domiciliated in all parts of our country, to the great vexation of its inhabitants. species is fond of warmth, and makes its abode near to the kitchen fire-place, about ovens, stoves, &c.

Cockswain, or Coxen; the officer who manages and steers a boat, and has the command of the boat's crew. It is evidently compounded of the words cock and swain, the former of which was anciently used for a yawl, or small boat, as appears from several authors, but has now become obsolete.

Cocles. (See Horatius.)

Cocoa-Nur. The cocoa-nut is a woody fruit, of an oval shape, from three or four to six or eight inches in length, covered with a fibrous husk, and lined internally with a white, firm and fleshy kernel.—The tree (cocus nucifera) which produces the cocoa-nut, is a kind of palm, from 40 to 60 feet high, having on its summit only leaves or branches, appearing almost like immense feathers, each 14 or 15 feet long, 3 feet broad, and winged. Of these, the upper ones are erect, the middle ones horizontal, and the lower ones drooping. The trunk is straight, naked, and marked with the scars of the fallen leaves. The nuts hang from the summit of the tree in clusters of a dozen or more together. The external rind of the nuts has a smooth surface, and is of a somewhat triangular shape. This encloses an extremely fibrous substance, of considerable thickness, which immediately surrounds the nut. The latter has a thick and hard shell, with three holes at the base, each closed with a blackmembrane. The kernel lines the shell, is sometimes nearly an inch in thickness, and encloses a considerable quantity of sweet and watery liquid, of a whitish color, which has the name of milk. This tree is a native of Africa, the East and West Indies. · and South America, and flourishes best in a sandy soil.—Food, clothing, and the means of shelter and protection, are all afforded by the cocoa-nut-tree. The kernels of the nuts, which somewhat resemble

into pieces and dried. When pressed in a mill, they yield an oil, which, in some countries, is the only oil used at table; and which, when fresh, is equal in quality to that of almonds. It, however, soon bycomes rancid, and, in this state, is principally used by painters. The milk or flur! contained in the nut is an exceedingly . cool and agreeable beverage, which, when good, somewhat resembles the kernel in flavor. Cocon-nut-trees first produce fruit when 6 or 7 years old; after which each tree yields from 50 to 100 nuts annually. The fibrous coats or husks which envelope the cocoa-mus, after having been soaked for some time in water, become soft They are then beaten, to free them from the other substances with which they are intermixed, and which fall away like saw-dust, the stringy part only being left. This is spun into long yarns, woven into sail-cloth, and twisted into cables, even for large vessels. The cordage thus manufactured is, in several respects, preferable to that brought from Europe, but particularly for the advantages which are derive. from its floating in water. The woody shells of the nut are so hard as to receive a high polish, and are formed into drinkneg cups, and other domestic utensils. which are sometimes expensively mounted m silver. On the summit of the cocoanut-tree, the tender leaves, at their first springing up, are folded over each other, so as somewhat to resemble a cabbage These are occasionally eaten in place of culmary greens, and are a very delicious food; but, as they can only be obtained by the destruction of the tree, which dies in consequence of their being removed, they are in general considered too expensive a The larger leaves are used for the thatching of buildings, and are wrought into baskets, brooms, mats, sacks, ham mocks, and many other useful articles The trunks are made into boats, and furmsh timber for the construction of houses; and, when their central pith is cleared away, they form excellent gutters for the conveyance of water. If, whilst growing, the body of the tree be bored, a white and sweetish liquor exudes from the wound, which is called toddy. This is collected in vessels of earthen ware, and is a favorite beverage in many parts where the trees grow. When fresh, it is very sweet; in a few hours, it becomes somewhat acid, and, in this state, is peculiarly agreesble; but, in the space of 24 hours, it is complete vinegar. By distillation, this liquor 'yields an ardent spirit, which is sometimes called rack, or arrack, and is more esteemed than that obtained by distillation from rice or sugar, and merely fermented, and flavored with the coccanut juice. If boiled with quick-lime, it thickens into a sirup, which is used by confectioners in the East Indics, though it is much inferior to sugar produced from the sugar-cane.

Cocytus (from Kwkuth, to lament); a river of ancient Epirus, which falls into the Acheron. The waters of both are The Greek poets call tinged with black, this river the black Cocytus, echoing with grouns. It encircles the region of Tartarus, and is composed of the tears of the damned.-According to mythology, Cocytus is the son of Styx, and father of Phlegethon and Menthe. Pausamas advances the following conjecture respecting this river: "At Cichyrus is lake Acheron, with the rivers Acheron and Cocytus, whose waters are very ungrateful to the taste. Homer, I imagine, had seen these rivers, and, in his bold description of hell, gave to the streams in it the names of-

those in Thesprotia." Cop (gadus, L., Bloch.); a genus of tishes belonging to the order jugulares (soft-finned, sub-brachial, of Cuvier), disunguished by the following characters :a smooth, oblong or fusiform flody, covered with small, soft, deciduous scales; ventrals attached beneath the throat, covered by thick skin, and drawn out to a point; head scaleless, eyes lateral; opercle not dentated; paws and anterior part of the vomer firmshed with several ranges of moderate-sized, unequal, pointed teeth, forming a card or rasp-hke surface; the gills are large, seven-rayed, and opening laterally; a small beard at the tip of the lower jaw; almost all the species have two or three dorsal fins, one or two anal, and one distinct caudal fin; the stomach is section and powerful, the coca very numerous, and the intestmes of considerable length; they have a large, strong swimming-bladder, frequently dentated or lobed at its borders.—The most interesting of all the species is the common or Bank cod (G. morrhua, L.). Regarded as a supply of food, a source of national industry and commercial wealth, or as a wonder of nature in its continuance and multiplication,. this fish may justly challenge the admiration of every intelligent observer. Though found in considerable numbers on the coasts of other northern regions, an extent of about 450 miles of ocean, laving the

chill and rugged shores of Newfoundland. is the favorite annual resort of countless multitudes of cod, which visit the submarine mountain known as the Grand Banks. to feed upon the crustaceous and molluscous animals abundant in such situations. Hither, also, fleets of fishermen regularly adventure, sure of winning a rich freight in return for their toils and exposure, and of conveying plenty and profit to their homes and employers. Myriads of cod are thus yearly destroyed by human diligence; myriads of millions, in the egg state, are prevented from coming into existence, not only by the fishermen, who take the parents before they have spawned, but by hosts of ravenous fishes, and an immense concourse of other animals, which attend upon their migrations to feed upon their spawn; yet, in despite of the unceasing activity of all these destructive causes, year after year finds the abundance still undiminished, inexhaustible by human skill and avidity, irrepressible by the combined voracity of all the tribes of ocean. This, however, is by no means the sum of destruction to which the species is liable. After the spawn is hatched, while the fiv are too young and feeble to save themselves by flight or resistance, they are pursued and devoured in shoals by numerous greedy tyrants of the deep, and, still worse, by their own gluttonous progenitors, clearly showing that without some extraordinary exertion of creative energy, the existence of the species could not have been protructed beyond a few year-. Such, however, is the fecundity with which the All-wise has endowed this race, that if but one female annually escaped, and her eggs were safely hatched, the species would be effectually preserved. This is not so surprising when we recollect that the ovaries of each female contain not fewer than 9,344,000 eggs, as has been ascertained by careful and repented observation.—Few members of the animal creation contribute a greater mass of subsistence to the human race; still fewer are more universally serviceable than the codtish, of which every part is applied to When fresh, its some useful purpose. beautifully white, firm and flaky muscles furnish our table with one of the most delicious dainties; salted, dried, or otherwise conserved for future use, it affords a substantial and wholesome article of dict, for which a substitute could not readily The tongue, which is always be found. separated from the head when the fish is. first caught, even epicures consider a delicary; and tongues, salted or pickled along

in the swimming-bladders, which areghly nutritious, being almost entirely ure gelatine, are held in much estimation. by house-kespers, under the title of tengues and sounds. The sound or swimmingbladder of codfish, if rightly prepared, supplies an isinglass equal to the best Russian, and applicable to all the uses for which the imported is employed. The liver of the cod, when fresh, is eaten by many with satisfaction, but it is more generally reserved, by fishermen, for the sake of the large quantity of fine limpid oil which it contains. This is extracted by heat and pressure, and forms the well-known cod-liver oil of commerce, which, in many respects, and for most uses, is superior to the commonly-used fish-oil. The heads of codfish, after the tongues are cut out, and the gills are saved for hait, are thrown overboard, on account of want of room, and because salting would not preserve them to any advantage. the head, being almost entirely composed of gelatine, is, when fresh, the richest, and perhaps the most nutritive part of the fish. The fishermen, it is true, make use of it for their own nourishment, but the great mass is thrown into the sea-a circumstance we can scarce reflect upon without regret, when we remember how many poor, in various charitable institutions, and through the country generally, might be luxuriously fed with this waste. If vessels were provided with the requisite implements and fuel, these heads would furnish a large amount of strong and valuable fish-glue or usinglass, that would well repay the trouble and expense of its preparation. The intestines of the codfish also yield a tribute to the table; the French fishermen, especially, prepare from them a dish somewhat similar, and not far inferior, to the sounds. Finally, the ovaries or ross of the females are surarated from their membranes, and the eggs, nicely pickleti, afford an agrecable and gustful relish, far more delicate and inviting to the palate than the celebrated Russian caviare. In addition to these usual modes of employing the different parts of our fish, the Norwegians, Icelanders and Kamtschadales pound up the backbones and other refuse parts, for the purpose of feeding their dogs and other domestic animals during the winter. Strange as such diet may appear, it is stated as a well-established fact, that cows, fed upon these pounded bones, mingled with a · shall quantity of vegetable matter, yield a larger supply and a better quality of milk than those supported upon more ordinary

provender.—The usual mode of preserv. ing codfish for commercial purposes is by salting them immediately after they are caught, having first removed the head, bowels, &c. Those which are carefully selected and salted with greater attention to their whiteness, are visually called dunfish, and bring a better price than such as are salted in bulk, with little regard to the discoloration caused by imperfect washing and draining before being packed. Where facilities are afforded for drying, by an adjacent shore, or by the construction of the vessel, cod are cured by drying alone, or with a very small quantity of salt. process requires several days' exposure to sun and sur, and, when skilfully conducted, keeps the fish, for an indefinite period, in a very desirable condition of wluteness and freshness, both peculiarly advantageous to the appearance of the fish at respectable tables. Cod thus cured are called stock-fish, and, before being cooked, require to be softened, by soaking in water and pounding with a wooden mallet.-The spawning season, on the Banks of Newfoundland, begins about the month of March, and terminates in June; consequently the regular period of fishing does, not commence before April, on account of the storms, ice and fogs; and, indeed, many fishermen consider the middle of May as sufficiently early. After the month of June, cod commence their migrations to other quarters, and, of course, the lisking is suspended until the cusning season.,-During the months of April and May, fresh cod, of several species, are caught, in considerable abundance, on the Atlantic const of the U. States, as far south as . the capes of Delaware, and perhaps still more to the southward. At this season, the markets of this country are, for a short time, supplied with this fine fish. The iuhabitants of the north-eastern cities, being near to the great fisheries, and employing vessels built for the conveyance of live fish, are liberally provided with all the luxuries obtainable from this great gift of Providence.—The common or Bank cod (cabelian or morne) varies in size and weight according to its age and the season of the year. The average length is about. 21 or 3 feet, and the weight between 30 and 50 pounds. Single cod have been caught weighing three times as much, medsuring 51 feet in length; but such specimens are uncommon, the greater number approaching the average above given. The color is a yellowish-gray on the back, maculated with yellowish and brown; the belly white or reddish, with

golden spots in young individuals. The fins are yellowish, with the exception of the anal, which are grayish; the head is large and flattened, with an enormous gape to the mouth; the upper jaw prorinus or heard about the length of a finger; the eyes are very large, and veiled by a transparent membrane; the scales are of large size; first ray of the first anal fin not arriculated and spinous.—Professor Matchill, in his interesting paper on the tishes of New York, enumerates 10 species of cod among the supplies brought to the parket of that city, caught on the coasts adjacent. To his valuable researches, pubished in the first volume of the New York Philosophical Transactions, the reader may advantageously refer, who desires to be antimately acquainted with the distinctions by which these species are discriminated. They are named as follows: - Gadus morrhua, Bank cod; G. callarias, dorse cod; G. tomcodus, tomcod; G. æglefinus, haddock; G. blennoides, blennoid cod; G. purpureus, New York pollock; G. merluccius, hake; G. tenuis, slender cod; G. longipes, codling; G. punctatus, spotted cod. The whole process of cod-fishing is highly interesting, but the briefest description of it would require far more space than can be afforded here. The importance of this fishery, and the great national interests, which it involves, has made it a fruittial source of diplomatic discussion, and led to the establishment of various regulations, to which all are obliged to conform who participate in its advantages. It is obviously out of our power satisfactorily to treat of these topics, and all the interesting matter connected with the sub-"ect, in an article solely designed to give a general sketch of the characters of the genus, and of the most interesting species of cod.

Cop, Cape. (See Cape Cod.)

Cone, in jurisprudence, is a name gween, by way of eminence, to a collection of aws. (For the derivation of the word, see Coder. For the different parties, among the lawyers of our times, respecting the dynamages of codes and codifying, see Law. For the different codes of modern times, see the respective countries, and the following list.)

CODE CIVIL. (See Codes, les Cinq.) CODE HENRI. (See Christophe.)

Code Napoléon. (Soi Codes, les Cinq.) Code of Frederic, or Codex Fredericianus. (See Prussiu, Code of.)

CODE OF JUSTINIAN. (See Civil Law.)
CODE OF LOUISIANA. (See Louisiana.)
VOL. III. 25

Cours, Les Cinq (Arench; the five coden); the new French digests of laws. The civil code (Code civil) or general law of the country, the commercial code, the penal code, the codes of civil and criminal procedure, form, together, a whole, which, whatever may be their absolute value, will remain a perpetual monument of the state of things in France which proceeded from the revolution, and particularly of Napoleon's administration. They originated from the spirit of the times and of the nation: and are, in some respects, the key-stone of the revolution, as they secure, in a great measure, its reasonable demands. Like all human works; they are chargeable with imperfection, and they have been criticised with severity by some. political parties and some learned works. (See Savigny Von dem Beruf unserer Zeit zur Gesetzgebung, 1816-On the Aptitude of the present Age for Legislation and Jurisprudence; translated from the German of F. C. von Savigny, by a Barrister of Lincoln's Inn.) Yet, compared with the preceding condition of jurisprudence in France, they must be acknowledged by all to have been a great and undeniable benefit to the country, as well as to the ege m which they were produced. The laws m France, before the revolution, were in a state of the greatest confusion. The Roman or civil law was universally in force as subsidiary to the local customs, and was applied, particularly, to the regulation of contracts. But with regard to the rights of property of married people, the modifications of landed property, feudal rights, &c., the greatest differences prevailed in different parts of the kingdom. The invasions of the German tribes must have effaced, in a great measure, with the Roman law, the last traces of the ancient laws of the Gallic nation; and that more or less completely, according to the degree to which the Roman constitution had taken root among the ancient inhabitants, and to the political importance which they themselves maintained under their new rhusters. Hence, in the northern part of France, and under the dominion of the Franks, the Roman institutions were more generally supplanted by the German, than in the south, nearer to Italy, where the country was more populous and under the dominion of the Visigoths and Burgutdians. Here some portions of the Roman. immicipal and judicial institutions had always been preserved; the civil law, par-ticularly, as it was contained in the collection of Theodosius II, remained valid, especially with regard to the rights of

The property between married people. previnces where it thus continued in force were called pays du droit écrit. The many drofts confumers of different dis-tricts, baronics and counties which were 'to be found in France, even in the pays du droit Romain, originated when the authority of a general government had given place to feudal anarchy, when every baro-... ny and every city formed an independent whole, and the king was nothing but the first among the great feudal lords of France (the dukes of Normandy, Aquitaine, Burgundy and Brittany, the counts of Champagne, Flanders, Provence, &c.), and, in his own domains, scarcely more than the first among the inferior barons. In each of these divisions, a particular system of law developed itself in the struggle or the old, free municipal institutions with the usurpations of the barons, in which the former perished entirely. The pe-culiarities of these different laws, however, proceeded less from the true wants and me spirit of the nation, than from accidental circumstances and events. must, however, be acknowledged, that the laws of the provinces or anciest principalmes of the realm, which were founded partly on express provisions adopted by the sovereign in unison with the states, are of greater importance. Among these, the laws of Normandy are of the host consequence, since they are, at least with regard to the feudal rights and the general principles of landed property, the foundation of the whole English law. (See Houard's Traile sur les Coulumes Anglo-Normandes, Dieppe, 1776, 4 vols., 4to.) William I made the feudal law of the Normans the predominant law of England, and founded the different branches of his government on feudal principles; even the language of the courts of justice and of the official papers of the government in England remained. French for centuries: and French formulas are still used in parhament and in legal language, though sometimes singularly perverted. After the law of Normandy, the customs and statutes of the city and county of Parts were of chief unportance, since they served as a model for many others, and were considered, in some measure, as a subsidiary source of law in the princhetion of the parliament of Paris. Some of these particular systems of law had been reduced to writing in very early times; for instance, the Etablissements de St. Louis. which were in force in the royal baromer, and were revised by Louis IX; and the conseils of Peter Desfontaines, of the 13th century. Besides the general privileges

of the cities, particular municipal laws were sometimes granted. (See examples in the great collection of royal ordinances, begun by Laurière, 1723.) Most of these particular laws, however, were preserved only in the memory of the inhabitants and of the judges, and were, consequently, very uncertain in their application. Therefore, after Charles VII had driven the English from the French territory, it was decreed in the assembly of the states, 1453, that all customary laws should be reduced to writing. The inhabitants were first questioned as to the law in use (by tens, or per turbam) until it was believed that sufficient certainty was obtained: the laws were then arranged by men learned in the law, examined in the council of state, and confirmed by the king. This operation continued almost a hundred years, and produced several hundreds of such particular systems, the most complete collection of which, containing more than 400, was made by Bourdot de Richebourg (Contumer general, Paris, 1724, 8 vols, folio). Besides this mass of par-ticular laws, some general laws were The first and second dynasty promulgated capitularia, with the consent of the nation. But the third dynasty, as . we have already observed, was not only obliged, in the time of feudal anarchy, to grant complete independence and sovereignty to the great vassals and lords of the kingdom (pays hors l'obeissance du roy), but even the inferior barons, the king's particular vassals, who had been enfeoffed by hen out of his own domains, made themselves almost entirely independent.' The legislative power of the king could, therefore, at first, be exercised only by granting privileges to the cities. by which the power of the burons was himsted, to the advantage not only of the catizens, but also of the crown. From the time of Philip Augustus (1180-1223), it became an established principle, that the king could unite vacant hefs of the Ringdom with his hereditary domains, as crown lands: and one of the first acquisitions of this kind was the duchy of Normandy. The great power which thus accrued to the king was so much strengthened by the address and personal authority of Louis IX (1226 – 1270), that he was enabled to make general laws, partly with, partly without. the consent of the barons. These were called ordannances. They were in force, however, only in the hereditary domains of the king: the great barons exercised an equal legislative power in their own termtories. After almost all these fiefs nad

been united with the crown, excepting some small sovereignties, as the principalities of Dombes, Orange, Bouillon, the counties of Avignon and Venaissin; and after the marriage of king Charles VIII with the daughter and helress of the duke of Bretagne, the authority of the ordonnances extended over the whole kingdom. At the same time, the royal power approached that absoluteness, which was prepared under Richelien by the entire subjection of the nobles, completed under Louis XIV, and the abuse of which, under Louis XV, produced the revolution. distinguished those on jurisdiction and the order of procedure, in which France was then in advance of the rest of Europe. The more ancient refer to local subjects, and the connexions of the church with the To the former belong the ordonnances of 1446 and 1453, and that of Villers Cotterets (1539), which was almost contemporaneous with the law of criminal procedure of Charles V, in Germany, and introduced the written trial instead of the usual irregular and tumultuous process, which was different in every seignicurie. Its author was the chancellor Guillaume Poyet, from whom it was also called Guillelmine. We might also mention the or banance of Orleans (1560), the ordonnance of Blors (1579), and others. None of these ordonnences, nor any collection of them, bore the name of code. The earlier incomplete collections of them (a systematic one was first made by Fontanon, 1611, 4 vols, foho; a chronological one by Neron and Girard, 1620, 4 vols., folio) were superseded by that published by the chanceller Pontchartrain, the first volume of which, edited by De Lauriere, appeared in 1723. The work has been continued by Secousse, Villevaults, Brequigny, Camus and Pastoret, 1816, 18 vols., folio. It is to be concluded with the reign of Francis I. Henry HIP intrusted the systematic arrangement of the ordonnances of his predecessors to the famous Brisson, who published them under the name of Code Henri, or Basiliques, though they acquired no legal authority. Under Louis XIII (1629), an express or-Honnance respecting the judicial procedure, and other subjects, which had furnished matter of complaint to the states, was sketched, in 461 articles, by the chancellor Michael de Marillac, but was not acknowledged by the courts, as it was not registered. It was called Code Marillac or Code Michau; and, in later times, the name code has been applied to several private collections of the ordonnances of a

certain period (for instance, Code Louis XV, by Chaussepierre, containing the ordonnances from 1722 to 1740, 12 vols. 12mo.; os relating to single objects, Code noir; Code des Curés, Paris, 1780, 4 vols., 12mo.; Code pénal, by l'Averdy, 1777, 12mo., &c.), but never as a legal designation. The government of Louis XIV was distinguished for its legislative activity. Comprehensive ordonnances, or rather real codes of law, appeared on the civil process (1667), on the criminal process (1670), on commercial law (1673), on the forest law (1669), on the Among the ordonnances of this period, are, marine (1681), and on ecclesiastical jurisduction (1695). The most important or-donnances of Louis XV relate to donations (1731), wills (1735), and substitutions. (1747). In this state of things, the great diversity in the existing laws was as burdensome as it was revolting to reason. It would betray but a superficial acquaintance with history, to suppose that such a diversity of laws could exist without great disadvantages. It retards the developenient of the science of law, as it requires the study of many accidental details, rather than of the general princi-ples of universal right, by which the Roman law has attained its high perfection. It is also a very injurious check to civil untercour, and a source of insecurity. and loss to those who enter into any legal connexions with the inhabitants of other provinces. Nothing contributes more to promote the internal intercourse of a nation, the foundation of its greatness, than umformity of laws. Hence the reduction of those 400 particular systems of customs into one civil code, was one of the things most desired by the French nation; and Napoleon, after having restored peace, and settled the subject of , ecclesus acal relations, could think of nothing which would contribute more to promote his popularity and the good of France, than the execution of this project, which had been aftempted in vam during The emperor himself the revolution. remarked at St. Helena, that he considered the code which bears his name to be the best monument which he had erected for himself. The abolition of so many systems of law, of the feudal privileges, of the family trusts, of the indivisibility of the fiefs, made the preparation of a general civil code possible, and even necessary, which was acknowledged as early as in the first constitution of 1791. Yet the three projects of Cambaceres, then deputy, afterwards second consul, and finally grand chancellor of the empire, in 1793

and 1795, did not meet with approbation. the greatest care; its defects must, there-, fore, be attributed to the then state of legal science in France. The restoration has caused no essential changes in it, but only deprived it of its name, Code Napoléon. A new official edition was prepared, in the Bulletin des Lois (vin ser. ii. 109), in which, however, nothing but the expressions referring to Napoleon and the imperial A similar constitution was changed. alteration had been made by Napoleon when he assumed the imperial dignity. The only essential change in the civil code, \( \epsilon \) down to the present time, is the abolition of the law of divorce, which, contrary to the principles of the Catholic church, had been made entirely free during the revolution, but had been subjected to some restrictions fluring the re-in of Napoleon. If we leave out of the question ceclesiastical considerations, and examine the subject only in a moral point of vieys, there can be no doubt that the sanctity and moral dignity of matrimony are better secured by declaring it dissoluble, under certain circumstances and with the observance of proper restrictions, than by increasing the mutual dishke of the parties, by making the bond indissoluble, preserving thus the appearance only, and not the essentials of marriage. Next to the code of civil law, the code of criminal procedure is particularly the creation of the spirit of the tune. The crimmal ordonnance of 1670, by its severity (allowing a double torture, the question preparatoire, to compel confession, and the question prealable, before the execution, to discover the accomplices), but still more by the manner in which it was administered by the tribunals, had excited universal indignation. The ambition of the higher courts, which aspired not only to the securing of independence for the judicial authority but also to political influence; the pride of the judges in their infallibility, and the esprit du corps, united the higher and lower courts in endeavors to conceal and defend their errors. The principle that coafession was not necessary for condemnanon, but that circumstantial evidence alone was sufficient (the exclusion of which was the chief trait of the German code of criminal procedure of 1532), was accompanied by many revolting abuses, and the execution of innocent persons-Lebrun, Langlade, Calas, Sirwen, Montballi, La-barre, Lally and others. The authority of Beccaria and Voltaire, and the example of the English criminal law, culogized by

Montesquieu and his disciples, were in-The code of civil law was prepared with strumental in bringing about a better The abolition of torture, 'state of things. the complete reform of the criminal courts and procedure, was one of the first objects of the revolution. The courts were modelled on the plan of the English, juries were introduced, and an order of criminal procedure (Sept. 20, 1791), which was followed (Oct. 6) by a penal code, and (Oct. 21) by a complete instruction on criminal procedure, was among the labors of the constituent assembly. Though sevcral changes have been made in the later laws on criminal procedure, in the Code des Délits et des Peines of Oct. 25, 1795, and in single ordinances (see Dupm's Lors criminelles extraites de la Collection du Louvre et du Bulletin des Lois, Paris, 1821, nevertheless the rule requiring, after a preliminary written trial, oral process and the verdict of a jury, remained unaltered, and was preserved in the Code d'histriution criminelle of Napoleon, of Nov. 27, 1808. Still a general dissatisfaction prevails in France in regard to this branch of the law, particularly as it is thought that too much influence is left to the officers of government in the choice of jurymen. Among many writings against the French crimical law, some are very distinguished (for instance, Berenger De la Justice criminelle en France; Paris, 1818; Dupin's Observations sur plusieurs Points important de notre Legislation criminelle, Paris, 1-21). A greater conformity with the English law is wished for by many, and is, of course, much opposed by another party. The penal law (Code penal) of the 22d of Feb., 1810, is a modification of the earlier code of the 5th Oct., 1791, and of the Code des Delits et des Perres, of the 25th Oct., 1795. Before the revolution, there was no penal code, but disconnected ordinances, and a theory constructed chiefly on the Roman law, which, with some intigations of its severity in particular cases, is also the foundation of the modern codes. The penal code has also been repeatedly attacked; the codes being, of course, among the most prominent subjects of party controversy. (Bavoux, in las Lecons Preliminaires sur le Code penal, Paris, 1821.) The code of civil procedure (Code de Procedure civile) of April 21, 1806, is only a new version of the ordinance of procedure of 1667, resting on the same basic. The accusation, answer, replication, and the statement of the points at issue, are managed by the advocates, without the interference and direction of the court. Written evidence is required by the laws; but the insufficiency of this kind of proof is

supplied by the liberty of demanding from the opposite party, at every stage of the process, an explicit statement respecting facts and circumstances (interrogation sur This statement has the faits et articles). same force, and is subject to the same conditions, as if delivered on oath. last declaration of the parties is made verbally before the court, and, according to rule, is followed immediately by the judgment. The basis of this process is the same as that of the German in earlier times, particularly before 1654, until the courts were obliged to examine the accusation and defence, and the last oral process was changed into a written one.-The Code de Commerce, of the 20th and 21st September, 1807, is a modification and extension of the above-mentioned ordinances of 1673 and 1681, on commerce and navigation.—These five codes have had a number of commentators and editors. They are founded on the basis of usage and experience, though it is evident, at least in the civil code, that it has been an object to avoid the particular and meidental, and to establish general principles. The ancient laws of France are as indispensable for their illustration as the history of their origin, the projects, the observations of the courts and of the tribunate, the discussions in the council of state, and the speeches in the legislative ibdy. Most of these materials are printed the same time, the history and study of the French codes is indispensable for right understanding of the French revolution, its real character and tendency, as well as of the extraordinary man whom it produced. It is worthy of notice, that, in the discussions of the articles of the codes, we find the consul Bonaparte, who usually partook in the discussions, inclining, generally, to the milder side. Besides the official editions, we have several editions of single codes, and of the five codes together, of which two deserve to be particularly mentioned, as they contain, at the same time, useful annotations and additions: Les Cinq Codes, annotés par Sirey (1818, 5 vols. 4to.); and, as a manual, Manuel du Droit Français, contenant la Charte Constitutionnelle et les Cinq Codes, etc., par Pailliet (Paris, 5th edit., August, 1821, 4to. and 12mo.). The history of French law has been given by Fleuri of Silberrad (in his edition of Heineccius's Hist. Jur.), and by Bernardi (De l'Origine et des Progrès de la Législation Française; Paris, 1816).—The Code Forestier, or the collection of laws respecting the administration of the woods, those belonging to

cities, villages, &c., as well as those of the king, was published Aug. 1, 1827, under Charles X. It is to be found, with the Charte Constitutionnelle, the five codes, &c., in a very convenient edition, the title of which runs thus: Les Six Codes, aver Indication de leurs Dispositions corrélatives ' et Rapports entre eux, augmentés de la Charte Constitutionnelle, du Tarif des Frais de Justice, de la Loi n'r le Sacrilége ; d'un Choix des autres Lois, Decrets, Ordonnances, formant le Complément de la Législation civile, commerciale et criminelle, et d'une Table des Matières; Paris, Froment ct Lequien, 1828. Though this title speaks of the Six Codes, the five first given are of course considered as constituting one whole.

Having given, in the preceding paragraph, the general history of the Five Codes, we shall offer here a brief outline of the particular history of the Code Napoleon, or, as it is now called. Code civil. One of the first labors of Bonaparte, when consul, was, to give France a code. By a consular decree, dated 24th of Thermdor, year 8 (Aug. 12, 1800), a committee was instituted "to compare the ord-; which had been followed in the preparation of the projets for a civil gode hithert. published, to determine the plan whack the committee shall think best to adopt, and to discuss the chief principles of civi-legislation" Portalis, Tronchet, Bigot-Preamenea, Maleville, and the minister of justice, formed this committee. Portalis and Maleville were of the pays du droit cerit. (So the preceding paragraph.) It the following year, 1-01, these commissioners reported a drul of a civil code, which was, in the first instance, submitted to the court of cassition (of errors; sec Cassation, Court of and the various courts of appeal. With the reports of the judges of these courts, the draft was submitted to the council of state, over which the consul-Bonaparte presided, and in which every part was thoroughly discussed. In the work entitled Conference du Code civil, avec la Discussion particuliere du Conseil d'Etat et du Tribunat, &c.; 8 vols. 12no.. Paris, 1805, a detailed and very carefullyprepared report of these discussions is Each article, after having contained. been discussed in this body, was presented to the tribunate, where it underwent another discussion, and was returned to the council of state as adopted, rejected or amended. In this way, the five codes, already mentioned, were successively produced. The Code civil was called, by way of eminence, Code Napoleon. It is divided into.

25 \*

2281 paragraphs, which are numbered, and , consist of a few lines each. The work is divided into 3 books (livres); each book: "Into a certain number of titles; each fitle is comprised in one or more chapters. preliminary title, "On the Publication, Effeets and Application of the Law in Gen-· eral," precedes the whole. The first book is entitled "Of Persons," and, in 11 titles, treats, 1. of the enjoyment and privation of civil rights; 2. of civil acts, such as the registry of births, marriages and deaths: 3, of domicil; 4, of absentces; 5. of marriages; 6. of divorce; 7. of the relations of father and son; 8. of adoption and officious guardianship; 9. of the paternal power; 10, of minority, guardianship and emancipation; 11. of majority, of guardianship of persons of age (interdiction) and judicial counsel. The second book is entitled "Of Property and the different Modifications of Ownership," and, in 4 titles, treats, 1. of the distraction of property into real and personal (immetables et meubles); 2. of owner-hip; 3. of usufruct, of use and habitation; 4. of servitudes (ensements ; des servitudes ou services fonciers). The third book is entitled "Of the different Modes of acquiring Property," and, in 20 titles, treats, 1. of successions; 2. of donations intervirus and testaments; 3. of contracts, or conventional obligations in general; 4, of engagements formed without a convention; 5. of the contract of marriage, and the rights of the parties respectively , 6. of sale; 7, of exchange; 8, of the contract of letting to lure; 9, of partner-lip; 10. of loan; 11. of deposit and sequestration; 12. of confracts connected with chance (alcaloires, such as wagers and life-rents); 13. of powers of attorney; 14. of becoming security; 15. of transactions: 16, of bodily duress in evil cases; 17. of form-lung security. 18 of mortgages; 19, of taking and siting off by execution: 20, of prescriptions. It would be necessary to give the heads of the chapters also, in order to present a clear view of the code, but our limits do not permit r. The work already quoted, Conference du Code civil, is indispensable to a complete understanding of the code. because it gives the history of each law. It first presents each article in the code, as finally adopted. Next follow the different forms and draughts of each article discussed in the council of state, with the report of the discussions. To this succeed the observations made in the section of legislation of the tribunate. We harn, from this work, how active a part

Napoleon took in the formation of the code, as his remarks are given as well as those of the others, and he was present during almost the whole of the debates. By the conquests of the French, the Code Napoléon was introduced into Holland, the kingdom of Westphalia, the kingdom of Italy, of Naples and Spain, and the dukedom of Berg. It had much influence, moreover, on the administration of justicó in several smaller countries, as Baden; but it has nowhere, out of France, retamed the authority of law, since the overthrox of Napoleon, except in the Prussian dominions on the left bank of the Rhine, and in some parts of the kingdom of the Netherlands: in the former, however, the government intends to introduce, the Prussian code. In America, it has served as a model to the Code of Louisiana and the Code Henri. (See Louisima, Code of, and Christophe.)

Codes, LES SIX. (See Codes, les Cinq.) Copex; with the ancients, that part of the word of a tree next to the bark. Before the invention of paper, wooden tablets, covered with wax, which were written on with the style, and put together in the shape of a book, were called cover. The word was afterwards retained, in times when paper was used for writing, to denote a large book. Thus, important works, particularly old manuscripts of poets, historians, &c., which had been preserved, were called codices manuscriptic. (See Manuscripts.) In like manner, a collection of laws was called coder, with the addition of the name of the sovereign under whom it had been compiled, as Coder Carolines, Code Napoleon.

Coder rescriptor (Latin: a re-written This name is given to ancient manuscripts, which, in the middle ages. were used, after the original writing had been in a great measure effaced, for the copying of other works, generally eccles-Thus the Institutions artical treations. of Gams, recently discovered by Niebuhr, nt Verona, are a coder rescriptus. Some skill is required to read the ancient letters under the others. The Greek name for codex reservatus is palampsest (q.v.), now more frequently used. The Holy Scriptures themselves have been sometimes effaced, to make way for homilies and legends. One of the oldest manuscripts of the Bible, described by Wetstein, in his preface to his New Testament, as number C, 15 a codex rescriptus.

CODEX ALEXANDRINUS. (See Alexandrian Copy.)

Conicil, in law; a supplement to a

will, to be considered as a part of it, either for the purpose of explaining or altering. or of adding to or subtracting from the testator's former disposition. A codicil may be annexed to a will, either actually or constructively. It may not only be written on the same paper, or affixed to or folded up with the will, but may be written on a different paper, and deposited in a different place. If intended to effect a devise of lands, it must go through the forms required by the statute of frauds; but, to a will of personal estate, it may be either written or nuncupative, provided, in the latter case, it only supplies an omission in the will.

CODRINGTON. (See Navarino, and Greece, Modern.)

Counts, son of Melanthus, was the 17th and last king of Athens. During his reign, Attica was attacked by the Dorians, or, according to some, by the inhabitants of the Peloponnesus, or the Thracians. The assailants, on inquiring of an oracle what would be the result of their meurston, received for answer that they would be successful if they avoided killing the Atheman king. Codrus, becoming acquanted with this answer, resolved to sacratice hamself for his country. He disguised.himself in a peasant's dress, entered the enemy's camp, provoked a quarrel with the soldiers, and was slain. The Athemans, upon hearing of this, sent a herald to demand the body of their king. The courage of the assailants was so damped, when they became acquainted with the circumstances, that they retired without striking a blow. In honor of ther patriotic monarch, the Athenians now abolished the royal dignity, esteeming no one worthy to be the successor of Codrus. They also used his name as a common term to express a man of distinguished exectlence.

Corfecients, in algebra; figures put before the letters, to indicate how many times the letter is to be added to itself. Thus 1 a signifies a+a+a+a. If the coefficient is indefinite, it is expressed by a

letter, as b a.

. Coenory, Memo, baron of; an engineer; born, 1641, near Lewarden, in Friesland. His father, a distinguished officer, early instilled rato him an inclination for multary science, which he studied thor-· oughly. In his 16th year, he entered the service as captain. He distinguished lum-self at the siege of Maestricht (1673), and at the battles of Senef, Cassel, St. Dems and Fleurus, and soon rose to the rank of a colonel. In 1675, not having received the command of a regiment, which had been promised him, he negotiated with Louvois for entering into the French service. The prince of Orange, however, detained his wife and eight children as hostages, and thus obliged him to return, and secured his attachment by acts of favor. In the wer of 1689, against France, he again distinguished himself. His defence of fort William, in 1692, which he himself had planned, against the attacks of Vauban, attracted much attention. Both commanders displayed all their talents. Coehorn was finally wounded, and had but 150 men left able to do duty, when he surrendered the fort, June 23, 1692. In 1702, he destroyed the French lines near St. Donat. In the same year, he published at Lewarden his new theory of fortifica -. tion. In 1703, he directed several sieges. In 1704, Marlborough invited him to the Hague, to concert a plan of operations, where he died, March 17, 1704 Coehorn was a man of good principles, and honorable feelings and habits. He fortified almost all the strong places in Holland Bergen-op-Zoom he considered his masterwork. His system, and that of Vauban, are entirely different. Vanban operated by mand-uvres, and, by the skilful direction of his ordnance and his men, saved both, and weared and divided the forces of the enemy; Coehorn crushed by an overpowering mass of artillery and of men, and sacrificed both for a rapid and powerful effect. Vanban's manceuvres were founded on calculations which are always in one's power; Cochorn founded his on superiority of force, which is not always at the disposal of the combatant. His system, however, is well deserving the study of

the military engineer.
Cellus, Moss (now Monte Celio); one of the seven fulls of Rome, so called from an Etruscan leader, Celes Vibenna, who dwelt there. It gave its name to a part of Rome, called Culimontium, or Culimontana, the valley between the Mons Carlus and Mons Esquilmus. The Palatine was on the west, the Esquine on the north of the Mons Colms. There were five tenthe Mons Codus. ples on this hill. At present, the church of the SS. Qualtro Coronali stands on the top of the hill. (See Rome.)

CENOBITE. (See Anchorite.)

Cour of Lion. (See Richard, Cour'd:

Lion.

Coffee is the seed of an evergreen shrub, which is cultivated in hot climates, and is chiefly imported from Arabia and the East and West Indies. This shrub (coffea Arabica) is from 15 to 20 feet in height. The

leaves are 4 or 5 inches long and 2 broad, erally more than the produce of one tree smooth, green, glossy on the upper surface; and the flowers, which grow in bunches at the base of the leaves, are white and sweet-scented. The berries and fruit are somewhat of an oval shape, about the size of a cherry, and of a dark-red color when ripe. Each of these contains two cells, and each cell a single seed, which is the coffee as we see it before it undergoes the process of roasting.-Coffee is an article of but recent introduction. To the Greeks and Romans it was wholly unknown. Its use appears to have originated in Ethio-, pm; and it is stated to have been first mtroduced into Constantinople in 1554, from whence it was gradually adopted in the western parts of Europe. The information we have respecting its introduction into England is, that, in 1652, Daniel Edwards, a Turkey merchant, brought home with him'a Greek servant, whose name was Pasqua, and who understood the methods of roasting coffee, and making it into a beverage. This man was the first who publicly sold coffee in England, and kept a house for that purpose in George vard, Lombard street. At Paris, coffee was nearly unknown, until the arrival of the Turkish ambassador Solomon Aga, in 1009; about three years after which the first coffee-house is said to have been established in that city. The coffee-shrub was originally planted in Jamura in 1732. . —Great attention is paid to the culture of coffee in Arabia. The trees are rused from seed sown in nurseries, and otherwards planted out in morst and shady sitnations on sloping grounds, or at the foot of mountains. Care is taken to conduct httle rills of water to the roots of the trees, which, at certain seasons, require\*to be constantly surrounded with moisture. As soon as the fruit is nearly ripe, the water is turned off, lest the fruit should be refudered too succulent. In places much exposed to the south, the trees are planted in rows, and are shaded from the otherwise too intense heat of the sun, by a branching kind of poplar-tree. When the fruit has attained its maturity, cloths are placed under the trees, and upon these the laborers shake it down. They afterwards spread the berries on mats, and expose them to the sun to dry. The husk is then broken off by large and heavy rollers of wood or iron. When the coffee has been thus cleared of its husk, it is again dried in the sun; and, lastly, winnowed with a large fan, for the purpose of cleaning it from the pieces of husks with which it is intermingled. A pound of coffee is gen-

but a tree in great vigor will produce three or four pounds.—The best coffee is imported from Mocha, on the Red sea. The kind, which is denominated Mocha and Turkey coffee, is of a better quality that any which the European colonists are able to raise, owing, as it is supposed, to the difference of climate and soil in which it grows. It is packed in large bales, each containing a number of smaller bales, and when good, appears fresh, and of a greenish-ohye color. The coffee next in esteen to this is raised in Java and the East Indies; and that of lowest mace, in the Wes-Indies and Brazil. When stowed in ships with runs, pepper, or other inticles, it is stud that coffee contracts a rank and unpleasant flavor; and this has been assigned as a reason of the inferiority of that which 1- imported from the European plantations The quantity of coffee annually supplied by Arabia is supposed to be upwards of 14,000,000 of pounds. Before the commencement of the French revolution, the island of St. Domingo alone exported more than 70,000,000 of pounds per an num; and, at the present day, such is the fertility of this island, that sufficient coffee is raised to reduce the price greatly in al parts of the civilized world. Almost al the Mohammedans drink coffee at least twice a day, very hot, and without sugar -The excellence of coffee depends, in a great measure, on the skill and attention exercised in roasting it. If it be too little roasted, it is devoid of flavor, and if too much, it becomes acrid, and has a disagreeable burnt taste. In Europe, it is usually roasted in a cylindrical fin box periorated with numerous holes, and fixed i.pon e spit, which runs lengthwise through the centre, and is turned by a pack, or by the hand. Coffee is used in the form either of an infusion or decortion, of which the former is decidedly preferable both as regards flavor and strength. Cof-fee, as very commonly prepared by per sons unacquainted with its nature, is decoction, and is boiled for some time under a mistaken notion that the strength is not extracted unless it be boiled. But the fact is just the reverse. The fine aroa mane oil, which produces the flavor and strength of coffee, is dispelled and lost by boiling, and a mucilage is extracted at the same firme, which also tends to make it fla and weak. The best modes are, to pour boiling water through the coffee in a big gin or strainer, which is found to extracnearly all the strength; or to pour boiling water upon it, and set it upon the fire, no o exceed 10 minutes. Prepared in either vay, it is fine and strong. As a mediine, strong coffee is a powerful stimulant nd cordid, and, in paroxysins of the asth-na, is one of the best remedies; but it lmost as much coffee as water. In faintless or exhaustion from labor and fatigue, nd from sickness, coffee is one of the nost cordial and delicious restoratives. There are coffee-machines, in which the cater is boiled, and the steam penetrates he coffee, and extracts, to a great degree, he fine aroma. Immediately after, the orling water is poured over it. That the cest coffee is made. As we have already aid, in Europe, coffee is generally roasted ra cylinder; in Asia, however, open panse r im plates are used, and, if the inneflows, a boy is employed, who picks out very bean, when it has reached the right egree of brownness. The same is done The second y some French people. ifference in the Asiatic way of preparing offee is, that they pound the beans, and o not grand them, much preferring the ormer mode. In Marseilles, we have seen offee likewise pounded. Whether this is ally preferable, we do not venture to deide but experience has taught us that ie 1-mie coffee is, on the whole, much etter than the European. The difference s probably owing to the different was of easting. The Tinks and Arabs boil the office, it is true, but they boil each cup by self, and only for a moment, so that the flect is, in fact, much the same as that of ifusion, and not like that M decoction. 'hey do not separate the coffecatself from ic infusion, but leave the whole in the up. It improves the beverage very much croast and grand the coffee just before it used.—The Turks drink coffee at all me of day, pres neat to visitors both in a forenoon and aftern on, and the opim-cater lives almost entirely on coffee nd opmin. Beaujour, in his excellent sork on Greece, tells of a theriaconhage in opium-cater), who drank more than 60 ups of coffee in a day, and smoked as rany pipes. Coffee has been the favorite everage of many distinguished men. Nableon and Frederic the Great drank it reely; Voltage liked it very strong; and sebuitz drank it also during the whole ay, but mixed with more than an equal uantity of milk. The best coffee, in the restern part of the world, is made in 'rance, where this beverage is in univeril request. In fact, throughout the connent of Europe, it is generally drank. In Ingland, however, tea is a more common

drink. In England and the U. States, coffee, almost always, is badly made., The coffee-houses in France, it is well known, are places which afford much opportunity for interesting observation. In hould be very strong, and made with the south of France, they are still more frequented than in the north. The different cafes of the palais royal in Paris are famous: the café des mille colonnes is one of the most splendid. The cafe de la pair contains a small theatre. In the cafe des dreugles, every evening, blind men and women of the hospice des quinze-vingts play and sing. Those coffee-houses, in France, where smoking is allowed, are called estaminets, which is also the name of the beer-houses in Holland. One of the greatest attractions in French coffee-houses is the limonadière, a woman who sits in an elevated seat, to attend to the sale of the refie-liments. She is generally very pretty, and is dressed with much taste. With genuine French tact, she represses all improper freedoms. The coffee-houses in London are poor.—In the East, the coffeehouses, or rather booths, form a very essenand part of the social system; all men of leisure assembling there. In these places are also to be found the famous story-tellers. who repeat long tales to attentive hearers, who show their interest by exclamations of "God save him! Allah depeve him of his eyes" &c., or utter warning cries to alarm the hero when danger awaits him. It often happens, that the story is broken off, and continued the next day. There is a highly interesting manuscript in the royal library at Paris, in Arabic, entitled, the Support of Innorence. It relates to the lawfulness of using coffee. The authoris Alicziri Albanbali. Of this De Sacy gives an account and extracts in his Chresto nathre . Irabe (vol. 1, p. 441). It appears that a question arose, whether coffee was to be included among the intoxicating Deverages which the Koran prohibits; and the manuscript proves that it is not. There are many other interesting matters in these expacts. The sheikh, the writer of the manuscript, proves that the use of coffee was first introduced by a famous sheikh, main, mufti and scholar of Arabia Felix, called Dhubani, about the year 870 of the Hegara. In Egypt, the drinking of coffee seems to have been at first regarded almost as a religious ceremony. The devotees, who introduced it there, assembled for the purpose of enjoying it on Monday and \* Friday evenings, when it was handed round with great solemnity, accompanied with many prayers, and ever and anon with exclamations of "There is no God

but God!" There are also mentioned, in the manuscript above cited, two different methods of making coffee, one called · buninga, in which the grain and husk are used together, and another called kishariyya, in which the husk is used alone. Mexico; lon. 97° & W.; lat. 19° 45' N. Many sermons against coffee-drinking are extant, written at the time when it was introduced into Europe; as there are also many sermons against smoking. We rec-· ollect having read the following passage in an old sermon: "They cannot wait until the smoke of the infernal regions surrounds them, but encompass themselves with smoke of their own accord, and drinks 'a poison which God made black, that it might bear the devil's color."—The following table shows the amount of coffee imported into, and exported from the U. States, during several years:

Imported	Exported
In 1821, 21,273,659 lbs. coffee.	
· 1822, 25,782,390 · · ·	1,653,607
" 1~23, 37,337,732 "   "	4,262,699
" 1824, 39,224,251 " "	2,923,079
" 1525, 45,120,630" "	3,254,936
" 1×26, 37,319,497 " "	1.419.022
" 1827, 50,051,986 " "	.2,324751
England imported,	

•	•	•			
in	1824,	•			 50,671,249
	1825,				 52,597,515
6	1826.			:	 42,017,092
46	1827.				 47,535,047
(J	uarter	endi	ng A	pril 5.	. 7,104.589

Quantity of coffee exported from Great Britain, from Jan. 5, 1-27, to Jan. 5, 1828:

British plantation, .			12,442,246
Foreign plantation, East India,			
•			20 475 690

COFFIN. Coffins were used by the an-cients only to receive the bodies of persons of the highest distinction. Even at the present time, they are not used in the East, either by Mohammedans or Christians. The modern Jews do not use coffins, but only two boards, between which the corpse is tied. But in Egypt, coffins seein to have been used in ancient times universally. They were of stone, wood, or a kind of paste-board made by gluing cloth together. Cotfins among Christians were probably introduced with the custom of burying. (See Burying-Grounds.) It has been often proposed that they should be made with a hole opposite the place of the mouth of the body, so as to allow breathing, in case of revival. Of course, it would be necessary, at the same time, to let the coffin stand for some days in a convenient place, as is the custom in many parts of Germany.

Cofra de Perota; a mountain of : is 13,414 feet above the level of the gulf of The Mexican name of this mountain is Nauheampapetl; the English, the Four parts, or the Square mountain. It is evident that the mountain has been a volcatio, and is formed of bushlic porphyry.

COGNATES: the relations by the mother's

side.

Conesion is that force which preserves in union particles of a similar kind. Its action is seen in a solid mass of matter, the parts of which cohere with a certain force which resists any mechanical action that would tend to separate them. In different bodies, it is exerted with different degrees of strength, and is measured by the force necessary to pull them asunder. According to Sickingen, the relative cohesive strength of the metals is as folloss - .

(3.1.1														•	150 OKE
Gold, .	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	٠	•	٠	٠	1490,74349
Silver,															190,771
Plauna.															202,361
Copper.															304.696
Soft nor	١.														362.927
flard ire	1)	١.													559,800

Cohesion in liquids is very much weaker, the parts being disjoined with much more facility; and, in substances existing in the aerial form, it is entirely overcome, the particles, instead of attracting, repelling each other.—Cohesion in bodies is weakened or overcome by two general causes—by the repulsion communicated by caloric, or by the attraction which may be exerted by the particles of one body on those of another.—Caloric communicated to a solid body separates its particles to greater distances, as is evident from the enlargement of volume which it produces. By thus increasing the distances, the force with which the attraction of aggregation or cohesion is exerted is diminished; if the heat be carried to a sufficient extent, the cohesion is so far weakened, that the body passes into the liquid form; and, if carried still farther, the attractive force is entirely overcome, repulsion is established between the particles, and the body passes into the aeriform state.—The same effects are produced by the exertion of that attraction which unites the particles of one body with those of another. If a hquid be poured on a solid, it often happens that

their mutual attraction is sufficiently powerful to overcome the cohesion of the solid: its particles are consequently disunited, to combine with those of the liquid, and it entirely disappears. This forms the chemical process of solution. A similar effect is sometimes produced by the chemical action of an acriform body. When these powers, whether of heat or of chemical attraction, are withdrawn, cohesion resumes its force, but with results which are different, according to the circumstances under which this happens.-When the attraction of aggregation is suddenly and forcibly exerted, the particles are united, in general, indiscriminately, and according to no regular law. If a body, which has been melted, is suddenly cooled to a sufficient extent, it becomes solid, and forms a mass of no regular structure or figure; or, if its cohesion has been suspended by the chemical attraction exerted by another body towards it, and if this attraction suddealy cease to operate, the force of cohesion is resumed, and the solid substance appears in the foun of a powder. This latter case forms the chemical operation denominated precipitation .-- But, if the force of cohesion is exerted more slowly, the particles are united, not undiscrimmately, but usually with regularity, so as to form masses of regular structure and figure, bounded by plane surfaces and de-terminate angles. This forms the operation of crystallization; and such masses are denominated crystals.—Crystallization takes place from fluidity, produced either by heat or by the exertion of a chemical attraction. Tee is an example of the first, which shoots in long, slender crystals, when water is cooled to a sufficient extent; and salts, which, when they have been dissolved in water, separate in crystals, on withdrawing a part of their water by evaporation, or reducing its solvent power by a diminution of its temperature, is an example of crystallization from fluduy, produced by affinity. In either of these cases, if the operation is conducted slowly, so as to admit of the particles uniting by those faces most disposed to umon, crystals are formed; and these are, m general, larger, more transparent, and more regular in their form, the slower the crystallization has taken place. The production of these regular forms is favored by the introduction of an already formed crystal, or of some foreign substance, into the solution, which operates as a nucleus, and upon which the crystallization com-mences. The access of air and light exerts an important influence, also, on the

crystallization of certain salts.-An enlargement of volume is often produced by crystallization, as in the examples of ice, of several metals, and of a number of salts; while, in other cases, the reverse is the case, the volume of the crystallized substance being less than while it existed in the liquid state-differences evidently depending on the mode in which the particles unite.-Crystals formed from a watery solution generally retain a portion of water in a combined state; and this is the case not only with those salts which are formed by the chemist, and in the arts, but with nearly all of the earthy and salme crystals found in nature. This water is named their water of crystallization. When deprived of it, they lose their transparency and density. Some part with it from mere exposure to the air, and suffer these changes; they are then said to effloresce. If they attract water and become humid, they are said to deliquesce. In some salts, the water of crystallization is in such large quantity, that, on the application of a moderate heat, it causes them to melt-a change called the watery fusion .- Water, which has dissolved one salt to the point of saturation, will still take up a considerable proportion of a second, and even of a third. Sea-water contains several wellknown salme compounds. In such cases, as the salts have different degrees of solubility, they may often be obtained separately, by a gradual evaporation of the water, the least soluble being the first to separate. The water of the ocean, evaporated to a certain degree, yields common salt; evaporated still further, it deposits Glauber's salts, and the remaining liquid holds dissolved a compound containing magnesia.—Crystalhzation also takes place in the transition from the aerial form, as is well exemplified in the arrangement of a plake of snow .- Every substance in crystallizing is disposed to assume a certain regular figure: sea-salt, for example, takes the form of the cube; nitre, that of a prism. Carbonate of lime is found crystallized in rhomboids, a particular class of prisms and pyramids: and garnet, in regular dode- . cahedrons.-The important application, therefore, of this law becomes at once obvious. The form of the crystal, in nuneralogy, enables us to determine the species to which it belongs. The same is true of pharmaceutical preparations; their crystalline forms furnish a certain test of the nature of the crystallized body .- The theory of crystallization is still obscure. Is may be conceived that the particles of bodies are of certain regular figures, and

dining, they may be disposed to the duling, they may be preference to these, probably by these which admit of most extensive contact. Hence a regwar structure and figure, uniform with pard to each substance, will be produced. The numerous diversified figures of crystals may be reduced to others plore simple; thus the equilateral, six-sided prising, and the double six-sided pyramid of cafe-spar, or carbonate of lime, may be "reduced by successive sections (parallel to natural joints in these crystals) to the rhomboid. The figure thus arrived at by mechanical division, and which is supposed to constitute the nucleus of the crystal. is called the primitive form. The number · of original forms thus obtained, according to M. Hady, amounts to six; 1. the regular tetrahedron; 2 the parallelopipedon, which meludes the cube, the rhomboid, and all the solids, which have six faces parallel, two and two; 3, the octohedron, the surfaces of which are triangles, and, according to the species, equilateral, isosceles, or scalene; 4. the hexagonal prism; 5. the dodecahedron, with rhombic faces; 6, the · dodecahedron, with triangular facts.—The secondary forms of crystals, or such as are usually exhibited by nature, are supposed to grow out of the primitive forms in the following manner .- The particles first unite to produce the primitive form, and from this proceeds the secondary form by the application of successive layers of parucles parallel to its faces; which layers are denominated tamina of superposition. The modification of figure is the consequence of the abstraction of one, two, or more rows, or ranges of particles, from the planes or angles of each of these lamina, by which a decreasing series of particles will be formed. Thus, supposing that upon one side of a cube successive layers of cubic particles be placed, and each layer be less, by one range of particles, than the surface upon which it rests, it is obvious that the . lines which bound the sides must be continually approaching each other, and that the last layer must consist of a single cube. · It follows, then, that a four-sided pyraimd will be raised upon one of the surfaces of the cube; and that, if the same thing happen upon the five other sides, the cube must be converted into a dodecahedron, with rhombic faces. The last figure is then secondary.. Its formation has generally **been quoted to illustrate the law of decre**ment, as if has been termed, and it is easy to represent it although coarsely, by models. "But if," says M. Hauy, "for this kind of rude maronry, which, however, has the

advantage of speaking to the eyes, we sub stitute the infinitely delicate architecture of nature, it will be necessary to conceive the nucleus as consisting of an incomparably greater number of imperceptible molecule. and then the number of lamine of superposition being itself considerably augmented, while their thickness has become imperceptible, the channels which there lamina form at their edges will likewise escape our senses." Hence the surfaces of crystals appear to us planes.-The facts which have been discovered; relative to the laws of decrement, are sufficient to provethat an inuncuse variety of crystals may be made to grow out of the combinations of the particles producing the primitive forms; for the decrements may take place on the edges or parallel with the faces of . the primitive forms, on the angles, in which the lines are parallel with the diagonals of the faces, in lines parallel to those which intersect the diagonals and faces constituting the intermediate decrements, or in a mode which combines, more or less, the decrements already mentioned, and which is, therefore, said to be mixed. These primary decrements may be so modified, as that they shall take place on certain edges, or certain angles only; or in uniform and alternate ranges; or from one edge, or one angle, to another; or, at the same time, on all the edges and all the angles, &c. Nevertheless, such is the fecundity allied to this simplicity, that, when limited to ordinary decrements, and to form ranges, on the edges and angles of a rhomboid, it may be demonstrated, that this species of nucleus is susceptible of producing 8,388,640 varieties of distinct forms.

Conort. (See Legion.)

Combetore, of Combetoom; a provmee of Hindostan, in Mysore, and southern part of the dominions of Tippoo Sultan. The country is separated from the country of Travancore, Cochan and the Nayre, by lofty mountains, called the Western Chauts; a continuation of which also bounds it on the north; on the east it is bounded by the Carnatic, and south by Dindigul: and it is divided into North and South Combetore. It is fertile, producing sugar, cotton, rice and betel lenf; and well watered by several rivers. principal towns are Coimbetore, Erroad and Carroor. In 1799, on the death of Tippõo, and the division of his territories, Coimbetore was ceded to the English East India communy.

Coimbetore; a town of Hindortan, and capital of the province to which it gives name; situated at the foot of the Western

£. , lat. 10° 58 12,060 thouses 2006. This say for many contained upwards of 40,000 inhebichine; but it suffered much by the wais of the British and the Mysore sovereigns. It is now recovering. The exports are to-bacco, cotton, thread; cloth, sigar, betel, &c.

COIMBRA (anciently Coimbriga or Coimbrica); a city of Portugal, capital of the province of Beira, situated on a mountain, mar the river Mondego, 90 miles N. N. E. Lishon; Ion. 8° 27 W.; let 40° 13' N.: the population was lately given at 15,200; but the disturbances in Portugal have, according to recent accounts, reduced the number much. It is a bishop's sec, and eat of the inquisition. It contains a cathedral, 7 churches, an hospital and a university. It was built by the Romans, about 300 B. C. The university was originally founded in A. D. 1291, at Lisbon, but was transferred hither in A.D. 1308, and is now the only one in Portugal. It consists of 18 colleges with ample funds. The course of study here is divided into six, branches, viz. theology, taught by 8 profemors; canon law, by 9; civil law, by 8; modicine, by 6; mathematics, by 4; and philosophy, by 4. The number of stu-Jents, in 1804, was 1431, and, in 1417, about 1400. To the university belong a about 1400. botanic garden and a library of 40,000 volumes. The aqueduct, on 20 arches, is remarkable. The envirous of Coimbra produce oil, wine and lemons. The inhabitants manufacture linen, pottery, earthen ware, articles of horn, and wooden tooth picks.

Coins. The relative value of the different species of coin which are enumerated in the following table is given in the Companion to the British Almanac for 1830, in English currency. We have reduced the values given in the English table into the currency of the U. States. The subject is one which does not admit of perfect acwhich such a table can be used. The lish coins as follows:-

France Holland and th florin de guild

The method of obtaining the Companion) is founded up ing principle. In a coin we consider the weight and standard. By standard meant the proportion of pure gold or all ver which it contains: the rest is all or Thus, if we suppose a coin to contain thousand parts of metal, of which 917 and pure gold or silver, the 83 remaining part being alloy, the 917 represent the standard or relative purity of the coin. Suppose we wish to know what is the value, in English money, of the Russian imperial of 10 rubles; the weight is 13.073 grain, the standard at 917; deducting the allow that is, 1.08 grain, these remain, in pure gold, 11.988 grainnes. The English severalists of the control of the cont reign weighs 7.9808 gram, the standard is at 917, the alloy, consequently, 0.662 gram, and the weight of pure gold contained in it, 7.3184 gram. Now, by the rule of three, the question will thus be resolved: 7.318 gram. : 11.988 gram. :: 90 shillings : = £1 12s. 9d. By this method, we can ascertain the relative value of all coins; but sometimes the value thus; ascertained will not exactly agree with the sum allowed in exchange. This difference arises from political causes and comenercial vicistitudes. This fall and rise, in the relative value of money, principally takes place wherever there is a paper currency.-A report of the director of the curacy, but we believe the estimates are. U. States' mint, in 1827, gives the weight, rufficiently correct for all the purposes for value and fineness of several of the Eng-

i 🍎 Ar 💮 🐧 ,	•		w	uight.	Pure enid.	Cur. val. by tale.	Vad. nr. durt.	Actual val.
		•	. dunt	grs.	det. gre.	a ets.	cts.	g cis. m.
Sovereign?				327	4 17	4 55	· 887	4 56 6
Guinea,			5	9.44	4 22.65	4 75	do.	4 79 4

The silver coins of late emissions are of less value than the older ones:

The state of Course to					
	Worght.		Cur. val. by sale.	Vel. pr. os.	Antuni val.
Crown, before 1816	19, 8.5	17 21.7	1 15	1 19 6	1:15
1816 to 1820, Shilling, before 1816,	3 20,5	16 19.3 3 13.6	1 15. 23	do. do.	23
1816 to 1820.	3,15		23	do.	21 7
. 404 HL			1. Oak		

KATAMONDO PETRITORINA DE 18 ANTANTO A SER	ega of the	TOTAL PROPERTY.	States Turk			. a.	,"4	,	
A Cold with a the Gold and Show A Deliverantions and Value, Weight in Metal which they contain, and their V	Course	faiffirest C	ountries	8	vist	thei Par	r' rial	ion	αĬ
Metal which they contain, and their V	alue in	English Mon	iéy and i	n L	Polle	ne m	dÖ	W.S.	*
1. United	STATES	OF AMERI	CA.		. ,	1 .		٠	
	Gold.		٠					•	
2 2 Estimal denominations.	dwt. gre.	. Grammes.	Standard.	£	~ a.	d.	4	cte.	
Eagle, of 10 dollars,	11 6	17.480	917			91	10	0	0
Half-eagle, of 5 dollars,	. 5 15	8.740	.917	٠ 1		101	_	O	_
Quarter-eagle, of 24 dollars,			917	U	IO	114	Z	50	U
-	Silver		,			01			٠,
Dollar,	9 17	27.000 13.500	903	0.		. 3 <u>1</u>	_	<b>50</b>	-
Quarter-dollar,	. 4 81	6.750	903	-		01	_	25	-
·		Вонеміл.				-	٠,		
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	Gold.					•			,
Emperor's ducat,	. 2 5	3.491	986	0	9	<b>·</b> 5	2	19	4
Hungarian ducet,	. 2 5		990	0	9	51	2	19	9
Half-sovereign,	. 3 7		917	_	14	9		46	
Quarter-sovereign,			917	0	7	41	1	71	ō
	Silver		43444				•	80	
Crown, since 1753,	18 1	28.064 14.032	833 833	Q Q	4 2	1 <u>3</u>	-	96 48	
20 kreutzers.			583	ŏ	_			16	
10 ditto,			500	0	0			7	
•	3. BAD	EN.						t	
•	·Gold.								
Piece of 2 florins,	. 4 9		901	0	16	81	3	84	8
1 florin,	. 2 4	3.400	901	0	8	41	1	М;	4
1	Silver			1					
Piece of 2 florins,	16 2		750	,0		-31		77	
1 florin,		4	750	0	l	31	U	30	ij
·	BAVA						•		
Complim	Gold.		771		^	41		74	
Carolin,	. 4 4		771	Ô	13	44. 74	3	74 17	
	Silver		•••	•	-15	• 2		•	-
Crown,	18 2	29.543	まま	U		G	_	4	
Rix-dollar of 1800,	17 12	27.513	<b>KK</b>	0	4			91	
Teston, or kopfstuck,	_		583	0	0	83	U	16	U
· • • 5	DENM.							•	
Ducat current since 1767	Gold.		875	0	7	6	1	74	7
Ducat specie, 1791 to 1802,	$\tilde{2}$ $\tilde{5}$		979	ő	-			14	
Christian, 1773,			903	-	16			86	
	Silver		'				,	•	
Rix-dollar, or double crown, of the	\$ 18 14	29,126	875	0	4	6	1	4	8,
value of 96 Danish shillings of 1776,	)		•		_		-		_

The weight of the come has been given both in grammes and in dwis. It is very easy for any one convert grammes into dwts, by means of the rule of three, knowing that I lb troy weight, or 200 dwin, are equal to 373.095 grammes. The ratio of gold to silver, in the U. States, is as 1514 to 1. Any one, therefore, by deducing from the above table the weight of the pure metal, in the gold and sivar coins, can abtain their precise relative value.

26,800

6.286

668

0 93 2

0 14 5

The money unit, in France, is the figure, which according to the country, in divided into 100 parts, called centimes. In government, exceedings and legal decis, all sums must be expressed in france and centimes; but smich the people, and in the purchase of goods sold by retail, and in small quantity, the denomination of seus is still in use. This practice does not areate confusion, because the son is a multiple of the contime,—that is, there are 20 sous to the franc, and each contains 5 centimes. The two sous piece may also be called decime, or tenth of a fiture. Although the franc and the livre tournois now appear to be of equal value, there is, however, a slight difference in favor of the franc:—100 fr. — 101 livres 5 sous. Hence, if all individual had to discharge a debt contracted previously to the year VIII of the republic, and stipulated in livres tournois, he would be entitled, in making his payment in francs, to a deduction in the proportion above mentioned. Formerly, the liwre tournois was the money unit of France. Its value has varied much, although it has retained the denomination which, originally, was the expression of its nature. Under Charlemagne, in the 9th century, its weight was 12 ounces, or 1 lb. troy weight; and its value 78 liv. 17 sous of present money. The weight and value progressively decreased down to the time of Louis XV, when it only amounted to 8 sous. Under Louis XVI, it rose again to 20 sous. Besides the new coinage issued during the republic, under the empire, and since the restoration, the old one is still in circulation. There is, however, but little of it extant. The value of the aliver pieces was not only reduced in 1810, as will be seen here, but the pieces of 24, 12, and 6 sous are not to be taken in payment, except they have preserved some part of the stamp (supremte); consequently, all those which were defaced have been withdrawn from circulation. There is also in France a coin composed of copper and silver, in the proportion of 4 to 11 called billon, and denominated, by

NEW COIN.

			Gold.								
National denominations.	•		dwt. grs.	Grammes.	Standard.	En	g. va	lue.			
20 franc piece,	• • •		$\begin{smallmatrix} 4 & 31 \\ 8 & 7 \end{smallmatrix}$	. 6.4516 12.9032	900 900			101	. 3	69 38	9
	•	Silve	r (argent b	lane\				, <b>*</b>	٠,	,	•
5 franc piece,	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	  	16 1 . 6 11 . 3 54 . 1 15	25.000 10.000 5.000 2.500 1.250	900 900 900 900 900	0	0	7 94 44	0	93 36 18 9 • 4	842.
•		Billon	(monnaie	grise).	,	۸	٠,٠	02.0	, 20 0	,	٥
Piece of 0 10 centime				•	• • • • •	v	.v	. n3.c	ייטכ	1	0
Décime, or 2 sous, Sou, or 5 centimes, Sou, or 1 centime,						0	0	04.8	<b>50 0</b>	. 1	8
bou, or I contine,	- P_		•								,
			e Old Cois		28.		•		•		
Louis of 24 Double ditto 48	=	Fr. Cent. 23 55 47 20	4 22	Grammes. 7.649 15.297	901 901			8 <u>1</u>		35 70	
		in.*	Silver.		•					•	)
Ecu, or piece of 6 Petit écu, or piece of 3	=		18 18 9 9	29.488 14.744	906 906	0		71	1	50	8
Piece of 24 sous	=	0 50	3 20 1 22	2.948}	at supposed	0	. 0	41	0	18	<b>7</b>
30 sous	=	0 25 1 50	0 234 6 12	1.474) 10.136	906 660	0		2į 2į	0	27	

## 7. HAMBURG Gold.

way grant was	Gold.		_			
National denominations.		Grammes. Stan	dard. En	g. value.	Amer,	
Ducat ad legem imperii,			86 Õ 79 O	9 44	2 1 2 1	
Mark banco (imaginary),  16 shilling piece, convention,  Rix-dollar specie,	5 20		0 50 0 89 0		0 3 0 2 1	
8. H	IOLLAND AND THE N		s <b>:</b>			
Ducat,	9 74	9,988 9 13,659 9 6,8 <b>2</b> 9 9	20 1 17 1 17 0	14 29 17 17	2 2 5 8 7 9 3 9	4 9 7 5 6 3
10 Wilhams, 1818,		0.700 9	00 0	16 54	3 8	3.4
Florin,	3 48	4.976 5 32.750 9 28.230 8	17 0 83 0 41 0 73 0	0 6 5 5 4 4	0 3 0 1 1 2	3 9
and nother to d	•		1110 114			
•	• 9. Japan. Gold.					
Old kobangs of 100 mas, Half ditto, New cobang, Half ditte, Tigo-gin, of 40 mas, Half ditto, One fourth ditto, One eighth ditto,	Silver.		only approximate.	· · · · · · ·	2 6 3	5 4 3 8 0 0 . 6 0 .
	10. LOMBARDO-VE	ENETIAN.				
Sovereign, 1823,	4 9 Silver.	5,6695 9	00 0	7 1 .13 64	6 3 3 1	5 5
Crown,	8 15k	1.5°06'83 (9	00 0 00 0 00 0	2 01	0 0 0 4 0 1	H 0
•	11. Mootl (East	INDIES).		. •		
	Gold.	·		•		•
Mohur of Bengal,		9 9 • 9		7 6		0.9 9 6
Rupee, Sicca,, Arcot,, Bombay,, Broach,		. 8	79 0 41 0 26 0 83 0	1 11	0 4 0 4 0 4	

	COINS.	3057
	18. NAPLES.	***
	Gold	
National depomenations.		Amer. val.
New ounce of 3 ducats,	2 104 3.786 996 0 10 54	2 44 1
•	Silver.	
12 carlini, 1804,	14 16 22.810 8394 0 3 44 2 22 4.588 8334 0 8 0 . 1 11 2.294 8334 0 0 4	0 77
Ducat of 10 carlini, 1818,	14 18 22.943 833 0 3 44	0 78 1
18	Papal States.	
Pistola of Pius VI and VII,	Gold3 121 5.471 9163 0 13 1111 181 2.735 9163 0 6 1112 41 3.426 1000 0 9 41	3 24 7 1 62 3 · 2 18 4 1 9 2
Crown of 10 paoli,	Silver 17 1 26.437 9163 0 4 34 5 2 7.932 9163 0 1 34 3 10 5.287 9163 0 0 104	0 99 5 0 30 0 0 20 3 0 10 1
Eno facio is aiviam in	14. Parva.	
	Gold.	
Zecchino,	2 51 3.468 1000 0 9 58 4 198 7.498 891 0 18 3 4 14 7.141 891 0 17 44 8 71 12.903 900 1 11 9	2 20 1 4 25 2 4 4 8 7 39 8 3 69 9
Ducat of 1784,	16 11 25.707 906 0 4 1½ 2 8¾ 3.672 833 0 0 6¼ 16 0 25.000 900 0 3 11½	0 95 6 0 12 6 0 92 2
	15. Persia.	
Rupee,	(AL ) 1 9 H	6 79 1' 3 34 4
Double rupee of 5 abassis, Rupee,		0 90 2 0 45 6 0 17 4 0 8 7 0 18 4
•	Gold.	
Lisbonine, or moidore of 4800 reis, Half ditto of 2400 reis,	3 11 5.376 917 0 13 5½1 17½ 2.688 917 0 6 8½ eis, 9 5½ 14.334 917 1 15 114 14½ 7.167 917 0 17,10½2 7½ 3.583, 917 0 8 1½1 17½ 2.538 917 0 6 4½1 3½ 1.792 917 0 4 5½	6 22 8 3 13 6 1 56 7 8 32 0 4 16 5 2 8 2 2 1 64 6 1 4 3 0 60 7

## ceins.

1 (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1										
		ver.	Chan amount 5.50	Standard.		٠. ـ			. ,	
25/11/17/19	dwt.	gra.	1.		£	og. v	alue.	Ame	ela i	
New cruzada of 480 reis,	9	1	14,633	903		2	74	Ó	60	7
	17. Pı	acss	14.	ن د			•			
		ld.	•					'		
ytDucat,			3.491	020	۸	0	4	9	17	2
Frederic,	4	7	6.689	. 9 <b>7</b> 9 903	_	-	6		17 84	
" Half ditto	2	34	3.345	903			٠ğ		92	
lie,		rer.			•	Ī	•	ī	•	•
Rix-dollar, or thaler of 30 silbergro			00.000		_			_		
schen of 1823,	(	_	22.272	750	0	2	114	U	68	4
Piece of 5 silbergroschen,	2	٠9	3.712	750	0	-	54 -	0	11	i
Silbergros,	• • • •		2.192	208	0	0	01	0	1	4
	18. R	AGU'S	٨.							
	Sil		-				•			
Ragusan, or talaro,			20,400	600	0	3	<i>'</i> O	A	69	9
Half ditto,	9	11	14.700	600	ŏ				34	-
Ducat,	₩	19	13.666	450	Õ		-		25	
12 grossettes,	2	94	4.140	450	•	-	4	0	7	8
6. ditto,	1	41	2.070	450	0	O	2	Ø	3	9
	19. R	CSSI	A.			r	•			
	Go	ld.			•					
Ducat from 1755 to 17634		•	3.495	979	0	9	41	2	18	0
—— of 1763	2	53	3.173	(9,8)	0		•		11	
Imperial of 10 roubles, from 1755 to 17	63, 12	19	16.585	917	2				67	
Half ditto,			8.203	917	!	0			83	
Imperial of 10 roubles, since 1763, . Half ditto,	7	171	13.073 6.536	917 917		12 16	9 44		(5) 81	
man ditto,		-	(MAC)()	3717	U	14,	49	t)	G.	J
DL	ક્યાં (૧) ૧૩		NE CEO	200	^	•	<b>~</b> 2		.5.4	
Rouble of 100 copecks, from 1750 to 176		] 168	25.870 24.011	, 802 730		3			84 73	-
, in the second second	·,	10	~4,011		Ü	**	~	v	. •	Ç
	0. Sai	RDIN	14. <b>*</b>						' •	
	Go	ld.								
* Carlin, since 1768,	. 10	74	16.056	5115		19	14		11	-
Half ditto,			F(15)	815	-	15	64		55	
Pistola,	9	1Uキ  マユ	9.118 <b>4.55</b> 9	, 906 906	ı	2 11	63 31	-	25 ' 12 (	
atau auto,		_	4,000	1700	v	••	οľ	Æ (	02	•
Coore since 17/59	Sili		23,590	un:	Λ	•	U2	^ .	٠.	_
Crown, since 1768,	7	107 107	11.795	896 896	0	4	81 104		fii ! 43 !	
Quarter ditto,	3	148	5,897	89G	ő		11	'n	+) i	i
New crown of 1816,	. <b>f</b> 6	0	25.000	900	ŏ		iîį	0 9	5i :	į
		. 11.					-			•
21. 74			EDMONT.	,						
	Gol		0.400		^	n	•-			
Zecchino,	2	53	3.468	1000	0	9	51		20 8	
Half ditto,	0	4 <u>1</u> 2 <del>1</del>	9.620 4.810	906 906	1	3 11	94 104		54 S 77 S	_
New pistole of 20 livres, 1816,	4	34	6.451	900			101		34 1	
Carline; since 1755,	. 30 2	2	48.100		5		ő	27 7		_
Half ditto,	. 15 1	11	24.050	906	2		Ğ	13 8		
Zerchino of Genoa,	2	51	3.487	1000	Ű	p	64	2 8	?} (	3
				١.						

	COINS	
**	Silver	٠

	coins.				7,	*30	4				
	Silver 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	7427	1.5	• • •	1	¥.	**				
	National denominations. dwt. graf. Grammos,				_ <b>y</b> :	<b>4.</b> 1	20, 3				
	Crown of 6 livres, since 1755, 22 14 35.118 Half-crown, 11 7 17.559	906.	0 3	2 9		30 65					
	Quarter ditto, or 30 sous, 5 151 8.779 One eighth ditto, or 15 sous, 2 191 4.389	9061 906	0 1		. 0	32 16					
	New crown of 5 livres, 1816, 16 . 11 25.000			1 0		94	-				
	22. Saxony.		,		•						
	• . Gold.	•	·		~		•				
	Ducat,	, 986 903		9		19 <b>67</b>					
	Augustus, or 5 thalers, 4 6 49 6.670	903	0 16	54		83					
	Half ditto,	903	Q, 8	3 23	,	91					
	Rix-dollar specie, or convention, since \( \) 18 \( 1 \) 28.064	833	.0 4	! 1 <u>}</u>	Ω	95	6				
	1703,	833	0 2	•		47	•				
	Thaler of 24 groschen (unaginary coin),	~ • •	ŏâ		_	71	_				
	Groschen, 24 to the thaler, 32 to the rix-dollar,	368	0 (	11	0	Ź	9 ု				
	23. Sicily.	•		٠			٠.:				
	Gold.			•							
	Ounce, 1748,	906	0 10	101	2	52	9				
	Silver.			•		,					
	Crown of 12 jams, 17 14 27.533	8331	0	4 04	0	94	1				
	21. Spain.			•	•						
• Gold.											
	Doubloon of 8 crowns, 1772 to 1786, 17 9 27.045 4 crowns, 8 164 13.522	901 901	3 1 1	6 7 3 34		51 75					
	2 crowns,	901	Õ Î		_	87					
	Half-pistole, or crown, 2 44 3.380	901	0			93					
١	Doubloon of 8 crowns, since 1786, 17 9 27.045	875	3			6,					
,	4 crowns,	875 875	1 1:			53 28					
	Half-pistole, or crown,	875		šĩ		88					
	Silver.										
	Plaster, since 1772,	903	0	4 31	1	0	6				
	Real of 2, or pescta, or one fifth of a 3 18 5.971	813	0	0 10	0	20	4				
•	Real of 1, or half poseta, or one tenth of a piaster,	818	0	0 51	0	10	2				
	Reallillo, or one twentieth of a piaster, 0 224 1.492	813	0	0 21	0	4	8				
	These three last coms have currency in the	penins	ula ,or	dy.							
•	25. Sweden.										
	Gold.	12.0					_				
	Ducat,	976 976	_	9 3 <del>1</del> 4 74		16 7					
	Quarter ditto, 0 134 .870.			2 3		<b>5</b> 3	_				
	Silver.										
	Rix-dollar of 48 shillings, from 1720 18 17 . 20.508 to 1802,	878	0	4 *6	• 1	4					
	Two thirds of rix-dollar, or 32 shillings, 12 114 19.672	878		3 0 1 6		69 34	9				
••	One third, or 16 shillings, 6 5# 9.836	878	0.		v	,	1962				

	26: Syitzer	LAND.				
	Gold.		• 1			
Distibut debemmations.	dwt. gru.	•	Standard.	Eng.	value.	Amer. val
32 franken piece, 16 ditto, Ducat' of Zurich, Berne, Pistole of Berne,	4 11 2 51 2 51	15.297 7.648 3.491 3.452 7.648		1 1 1 0 1 0 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	7 9 3 10 <u>4</u>	8 79 ( 4 30 t 2 19 4 2 15 t 4 38 8
• •	Silver.		•	•		
Crown of Basle of 30 batz, or 2 fi Half-crown, or florin, Franken of Berne, since 1803, . Crown of Zurich, of 1781, Half-crown, or florin, since 1781, Crown of 40 batz of Basle and	7 12½4 17½16 06 0	23.386 11.693 - 7.512 25.057 12.528 20.480	878 878 900 844 844	0 0 0	74 1 94 1 24 1 84 1 104	0 86 4
leure, since 1/20,	• • •		901	0 4		1.81
Piece of 4 franken of Berne, 179 Switzerland	0, 18 22 d.of	29,370	901	0 4	_	1 8 8
1803. Ditto of 2 franken of Switzerland	i, of { 0 111	30.049 15.025	800. 800		1 9 2 4 <u>1</u>	1 10 7
Ditto of 1 franken,		7.512	900 -	0	24	0 28 !
	) ()===================================					
	27. TURK	и.				
Zecchin zermahboub of Sultan	Ali- } 1 16	2.642	954	0	6 <b>1</b> 1	1 61 :
doul Hamet, 1774,		1.321	958		3 54	0 80 (
Roubbié, or 1 zecchin fondoukli.		188.05	802		íjï	0 41 1
Zecchin zermahboub of Sel. III.		2.642	803		94	1 35 (
Half ditto,		0.660	403 403		2 41 1 21	0 55 : 0 27 ;
	Silver.					
Altmichlec of 60 paras, suice 177		25.832	550		5 97	0 65 (
Yaremlec of 20 paras, or 60 a-per		• • • • •	• • •			0 18 (
Rouble of 10 paras, or 30 aspers, Aspre, 120 in the piaster,		•••••	• • •	0 (	) 4 <u>1</u>	0 0 (
Piastre of 40 paras,	• • • • • • • • •		• • •	ŏ :	-	0.36 1
Piece of 5 piastres,		r	• • •	0 :	2 34	0 52 1
	26. Tusca	NT.				
•	Gold.					•
Ruspone, 3 zecchim, with the lily One third ruspone, or zecchino, Half zecchino, Zecchino with effigy, Rosina, Half ditto, Half ditto,	2 5\\2 5\\2 5\\4 11\\2 5\\4 11\\2 5\\4 11\\2 5\\4 11\\2 5\\4 11\\2 5\\4 11\\2 5\\4 11\\	10,464 3,488 1,744 3,418 6,976 3,488	1000 1000 1000 1000 896 896		6 <u>1</u>	6 66 ( 2 22 ; 1 10 7 2 22 1 3 96 ( 1 90 (
Francescomi of 10 moll or aroun	Silver.	•			•	
Francesconi of 10 paoli, or crown 10 paoli,	17 134	25.507	917	0 4	51	1 34
Piece of 5 paoli,	8 18	12.753 5,501 2.751	917 917 917	0 2 0 10 0 0	) O	0 51 ; 2 33 ( 0 9 7
· •				•		

## 29. VENICE.

## Cald

National denominations.	dwt.	gra.	Grammes.	Standard.	Eng.	value.	Amer. val			
Zecchino,	. 2	51	3.484	1000		9 6	2.21 4			
Half ditto,			1.742	1000	0	4 9	1 10 7			
Ozella,			13.666	1000	1 1	-	8 70 0			
Ducat,	. 1	93	2.175	1000	Ð	5 114	1 39 0,			
Pistola,	. 4	83	6.764	917	0 1	5 111	3716			
Silver.										
Ducat of 8 livres,	. 14	15 <u>1</u>	22.777	826	0	3 35	0 77 0			
Crown of the cross,	. 20	10	31.788	•948	0	5 3¥	1238			
Ducatoon,	18	<b>1</b> 0	27.914	- 948	-	4 8	190			
Talaro,	. 18	13	28,990	826	•	4 23	0 98 3			
Ozella,			9.843	. 948	0	1 73	0 38 1			

(For further information in regard to coins, see Standard Mint, Money and Exchange.)

Coire (Chur); the capital of the Swiss canton of the Grisons, on the rivers Plessur and Rhine, with 3350 inhabitants.' The trade between Germany and Italy is the cause of the wealth of this city. Not far from Coire the Rhine begins to be unvigable for small vessels. This town contains several scientific establishments, and a bishop's see, whose income amounts to 10,000 guilders, chiefly derived from the Tyrol. The secular possessions of the bishops were given, in 1802, to the Helvetic republic, as an indemnification for losses which it had suffered in other Cittil 1498, Coire was a free quarters. unperial city, but at that time came under the government of the bishop, who was under the archbishop of Mehtz. There is a very good, school here.

Coke. (See Coal.)

Coke, sir Edward, one of the most emnent English lawyers, the son of Robert Coke, esquire, of Norfolk, was born in 1550. He received his early education at the free-school of Norwich, whence he was removed to Trunty college, Cambridge? From the university he went to London, and entered the Inner Temple. He pleaded his first cause in 1578, and was appointed reader of Lyon's Inn, where his lectures were much frequented. His reputation and practice rapidly increased, and he was placed in a situation of great respectability and affluence, by a marriage with a coheress of the Paston family. He was chosen recorder of the cities of Norwich and of Coventry; was engaged in all the great causes at Westmuster hall, and, in the 35th year of Ehzabeth, chosen knight · of the slure for his county, and speaker of the house of commons. In 1592, he became solientor-general, and, soon after,

attorney-general; and the death of his wife, who brought him 10 children, gave him another opportunity, of increasing his influence, by a marriage with the widow. lady Hatton, sister to the minister Burleigh. He acted the usual part of a crown lawyer medi state prosecutions; and one of the most important that fell under his management as attorney-general, was that of the unfortunate earl of Essex, which. he conducted with great asperty. Soon after the accession of James I he was knighted. The celebrated trial of sir Walter Raleigh followed, in which Coke displayed a degree of arrogance to the court, and of rancor and insult towards the prisoner, which was universally condenned at the time, and has been deemed. one of the greatest stains upon his character, by all posterity. On the discovery of the gunpowder plot, he obtained great credit by the clearness and sagacity with which he stated the evidence; and, in ItiO6, he became chief justice of the common pleas. In 1613, he succeeded to the important office of chief justice of the court of king's beach, but was in much less favor with James than his rival, lord Bacon. He was, in fact, too wary and stanch a lawyer to commit himself on tla subject of prerogative; and as his temper was rough, and his attachment to law truly professional, he could scarcely forbear involving himself with a court so notorious for arbitrary principles as was the English during the reign of James. The honorable zeal which he displayed in the execrable affair of sir Thomas Overbury, and in the prosecution of the king's wretched mimons, Somerset and his countess, for that atrocious murder, made hun enemies; and advantage was taken

of a dispute, in which he erroneously engaged with the court of chancery, to remove him, in 1616, both from the council and his post of chief justice. His real offence, however, was a refusal to favor the new favorite Villiers in some pecuniary matter. Coke meanly made up this , breach by marrying his youngest daughter, with a large fortune, to the elder brother of Villiers, and was, in consequence, remstated in the council in 1617, and actively · engaged in prosecutions for corruption in office, and other crimes, of a nature to recruit an exhausted treasury by the infliction of exorbitant fines. He, however, supported the privileges of the commons with great tenacity; for which, after the prorogation of parliament, in 1621, he was committed to the Tower. He was, however, quickly liberated; but was again expelled the privy council, with peculiar marks of displeasure on the part of James. On the accession of Charles I, he was nominated sheriff of Buckinghamshire, in order to prevent his being chosen member for the county, which, however, he represented in the parliament which met in 1628. The remainder of his carer was highly popular; he greatly distinguished himself by his speeches for redress of grievances; vindicated the right of the commons to proceed against any individual, however exalted: openly named Buckingham as the cause of the unsfortunes of the kingdom: and, finally, scaled his services to the popular part of the constitution, by proposing and framing the famous "petition of rights," the most explicit declaration of English liberty which had then appeared. This was the last of his public acts. The dissolution of parhament, which soon followed, sent him into retirement, at Stoke Pogus, in Buckinghamshire, where he spent the renamder of his life in tranquillity. He died in Sept., 1634, in the 85th year of his age, leaving behind him & numerous posterity and a large fortune. Sir Edward Coke was a great lawyer, but a great lawyer only. In mere legal learning he has, perhaps, never been excelled; but he was essentially defective in the ments of systematic arrangement and regard to general principles, without which law is a mere collection of arbitrary rules, undeserving the name of science. It must be admitted, however, that his writings, and especially his Commentary on Littleton's Treatise on Tenures, form a vast repository of legal crudition. In short, he was a man of immense professional research, and great segacity and perseverance in a cho-

sen pursuit; and, as usual, more philosophical and 'general 'powers were seen'- ' ficed to its exclusiveness. His principal works are, Reports, from 1600 to 1615: A Book of Eptrics (folio, 1614): Institutes of the Laws of England, in four parts; the first of which contains the Com-. mentary on Littleton's Tenures; the second, a Commentary on Magna Charta and other statutes; the third, the criminal laws or pleas of the crown; and the fourth, an account of the jurisdiction of all the courts in the kingdom: A Treatise of Bail and Mainurise (1637, 4to.): Rending on the Statute of Fines, 27 Edw. I (4to.): Com-

plete Copyholder (1640, 4tq.).

Coxe, Thomas, a missionary, was born in 1747, at Brecon, in South Wales. In 1775, he took his degree of LL. D. at Oxford, and, soon after, became acquainted with the celebrated John Wesley, who soon brought him over to his own opinions, and, in 1780, appointed him to supermend the London district: he also made him one of the trustees, on his execution of the deed of declaration as to all his chapels. In 1784, Wesley is said to have consecrated him as a bishop, for the purpose of supermtending the Methodistical societies in America. The doctor now, therefore, made several voyages to the U States and the West Indies, estab-histing meeting-houses, organizing congregation, and ordaning ministers. He subsequently returned to England, where he had some me-understanding with Mr. Wesley, who, as the founder of a sect, expected more submission than doctor Coke was inclined to bestow. He accordingly determined on visiting Nova Scotts, but, in consequence of a storm, the ship in which he embarked took refuge in the harbor of Antigua, which led him to preach there, and to visit several other islands; and he examined the state of religion generally, both in the West Indies and America, before he again returned to England. He made, ultogether, mme voyages to this quarter of the globe, on the same business, and met with great success as a missionary. He was the author of a Commentary on the Bible, undertaken at the request of the Methodists; A History of the West Indies, and several other works, among which was a Life of Wesley, written in conjunction with Heary More. In 1814, he sailed for the East Indies, but died on the voyage. He was of a zealous, but also of an amiable character.

Colbero; a Prussian fortress and seaport, in Pomerania, in the district of

Koslin, on the river Persante, one mile from the sea, with about 7000 inhabitants. Here is an important salt manufactory. This small fortress was often attacked and besieged by the Russians, in the war against Frederic the Great; and, in 1807, it was admirably defended by general Gneisenau (q. v.), Schill (q. v.), and the citizen Nettelbeck (q. v.), against the French generals Fenlie, Loison and Mortier (q. v), who commanded in succession the besieging corps, consisting of 18,000 men, which fired into the town 6775 balls, besides those thrown against the works. The garrison, which was only 6000 men strong, lost 420 men killed, 1093 wounded, 209 prisoners, and 159 missing. The fortress was not taken. The remnant of the garrison was formed into one regiment, called the Colberg regiment, which was considered one of the bravest in the Prussian army. Blücher returned thanks to them, in particular, for their conduct in the battle of Ligny, June 16, 1815, on which occasion they had been engaged from one o'clock till about dark, and had suffered great loss. The editor will always consider it an honor to have fought in their ranks.

Colbert, Jean Baptiste, French mimster of finances, born 1619, at Rheims, son of a draper and wine-merchant, entered, in 1648, the service of Le Tellier, secretary of state, by whom he was made known to cardmal Mazarin, who discovered his talents, and made him his intendant, and availed himself of his assistance, in the financial administration of the kingdom. Mazarin rewarded hum, in 1654, with the office of secretary to the queen, and recommended him, at his death, to the king (1660). Louis XIV made Colbert intendant of the finances. Colbert and Le Telher now joined to effect the fall of Fouquet, for which purpose they had united, the former from ambition, the latter from envy. After effeeting this object, Colbert, with the title of a controleur-général, assumed the direction of the finances. He had a task to remedy the evils which the feeble and stormy reign of Louis XIII, the splendid but arbitrary measures of Richelieu, the troubles of the Fronde, and the confused state of the finances under Mazarm, had occaroned. He found fraud, disorder and corruption prevailing every where. The domains were alienated. Burdens, privileges and exemptions were multiplied without measure; the state was the prey of the farmersgeneral, and, at the same time, maintained only by their aid. The people were obliged to pay 90,000,000 of taxes, of which the king received searcely 35,000,000; the

1 - W. M revenues were anticipated for two years, and the treasury empty. Colbert had to proceed from the same point as Sully; but the jealous and impetuous Louvois, the wars, the luxury and the prodigality of Louis XIV, increased his difficulties, and he was forced, in the latter half of his career, to retrace the steps which he had taken in the former. He began with establishing a council of finances and a chamber of justice, the first that he might. have an oversight of the whole; the other, that he might watch the embezzlements of the farmers-general, and liquidate the debts of the state. For the purpose of alleviating the public burdens, he endeavored to lower the interest of the public debt; and, in order to mitigate the odium of this, measure, he consented to a considerable diminution of the taxes, and to the remission of all arrears up to 1656. He abolished many useless offices, retracted burdensome privileges, diminished salaries, put a stop to the infamous trade in offices, and the no less injurious custom of making the courtiers interested, as farmers-genefal, in the produce of the public revenues he exposed the arts and abuses, and limited the immense gain, of the collectors; established a loan-bank; diminished the interest of money; reestablished the king in the possession of his domains, and appropriated suitable funds for each expenditure. A better distribution and collection of the taxes enabled him to reduce them almost one half. The happiest success crowned his wise and courageouslyexecuted measures. Notwithstanding the expenses of nearly ten years' war; notwithstanding the prodigality of a luxurious king, Colbert succeeded, in 22 years, in adding to the revenues more than 28,000,000, and making an equal diminition in the public burdens; and, at his death, in 1683, the revenue actually received amounted to 116,000,000. In 1664, Colbert was superintendent of buildings, of arts and manufactures, and, in 1669, minister of the marme. To his talents, activity and enlarged views, France owes the universal develoffement and the rapid progress of her industry and commerce. France was not only freed from the taxes which its luxury had hitherto paid to foreign countries, but it partook also of the advantages of that industry which had previously distinguished England, Holland, Venice, Genoa, the Levant, and some cities of Flanders and Germany. Manufactures were established, and flourished; the public roads were improved, and new roads laid out. Colbert built the canal of Languedoc; formed

Ritseilles and Dunkirk free ports; granted amounts on goods experted and importand; regulated the tolls; established insur-ance offices; made uniform laws for the regulation of commerce; labored to render the pursuit of it honorable, and invited the 'nobility to engage in it. In 1664, two commercial companies were instituted to trade with the East and West Indies, to which the king advanced considerable sums. The colonies in Canada, Martinique, and particularly in St. Domingo, received new life from their union with the crown, and began to flourish. New colonies were established in Cayenne and Madagascar. For the purpose of maintaining these distant possessions, a consid-, erable naval force was required. Colbert created this also. When he entered the ministry of the marine, the navy consisted of a few old vessels, which Mazarin had permitted to rot in the harbors. Colbert at first purchased vessels in foreign countries, but soon had them built in France. The ports of Brest, Toulon and Rochefort were repaired; those of Dunkirk and Havre were fortified. Naval schools were established, and order was introduced into all branches of the marine. In 1072, France had 60 vessels of the line, and 40 frigates: in 1681, victorious by land and sea, she had 198 men-of-war, and 166,000 seamen. By the advice of Colbert, Louis XIV coused the civil and criminal legislation to be improved, and the arts and sciences encouraged. Under the protection and in the house of the minister (1003), the academy of inscriptions was founded. Three years afterwards, he founded the academy of sciences, and, in 1671, the academy of architecture. The academy of painting received a new organization. The French academy in Rome was established. He enlarged the royal library, and the garden of plants, and built an observatory, in which he employed Huygens and Cassini. He began the mensurations of the meridian in France, and sent men of science to Cayenue. Paris was indebted to han for nuncrous embellishments, and many learned men in Europe received his patronage. But, notwithstanding all this, many objections have been made to this The most important is, great munster. that he promoted manufactures at the expense, of agriculture, and left the pensantry without resources. With more ustice, he is tharged with having introduced sn excess of minute and vexations regulations into all branches of the administration. But Colbert must be judged with regard

blan of that of Burgundy; declared to the circumstances under which he acted. He did all that was possible; not every. thing he wished. He had no such an influence on the undertakings, resolutions and inclinations of llis prince as was enjoyed by Sully. Sully gave the law to his master; Colbert received it from his. The former might be called the minister of the nation; the latter, only of the king. Henry IV and Louis XIV had both great aims; but the one for France, the other for himself; and this difference produced the most important results in their administration. Sully, ever independent and sure of approbation, enriched the state by a wise economy, which was promoted by Henry, who considered the people as his family: Colbert, always dependent and thwarted in his plans, maintained the state, notwithstanding the produgality of the king, and rendered it flourishing, notwithstanding the burdens of numerous armies and expensive wars. He was forced to have recourse to measures which he desired to see abolished forever; and he predicted to the president, who recommended a loan, "You open a wound which your grandchildren will not see healed." Assoon. as peace permitted him to breathe more . freely, he returned to his own principles and corrected the consequences of measures which he had adopted against his own will so rapidly, that the end of his administration was the most splendid epoch of the reign of Louis XIV. Colbert was ambitious, but honest; and, living in a continual struggle with intrigue and jealousy, enjoyed no tranquility. He died in 1683, at the age of 64 years, exhausted by incessant labor, worn out with anxiety and grief, remedying, with difficulty, the present emparrassments, and looking with apprehension to the future. The people of Paris, imbittered by new taxes on provisjons, disturbed his funeral, and threatened violence to his remains; but the misfortunes which soon afterwards afflicted the state, opened the eyes of his enemics, and obliged them to respect the memory of him whom they had unjustly persecuted.

Colculation; a town in England, in Essex, on the river Colne; Is miles S.S.W. Ipswich, 51 N.E. London; Ion, 0° 59 E.; lat. 51° 53' N.; population, 14.016. It is situated on the north side of an eminence on the Colne, 8 or 9 miles from the ... Vessels of 100 tons can come up to It contains an ancient castle, and has been encircled by walls, now much decayed. It is a place of considerable trade and manufacture. The principal manufacture consists of woollen cloth, particularly baize.

Clysters form a considerable article of trade. It sends two members to parliament; has two weekly markets, and four annual fairs. It is an ancient town, supposed to be the Colonia of the Romans, and the native place of the empress Heleman, mother of Constantine. In 1648, this city sustained a memorable seege against the forces of the parliament, and did not surrender till after it had experienced the horiors of famine.

Colchester, lord. (See Abbot.)

The colchicum autumnale, COLUMN W. or meadow saffron, is a bulbous-rooted plant, which grows in various parts of Europe, and which, of late years, has become quite noted as a remedy for that bane of a luxurious life-the gout. It is a very powerful remedy, and should never be used without the attendance and advice of a well-educated medical practitionc er, as its effects might otherwise be highly injurious. At is now behaved to be idenneal with the base of the can melicinale, which has been, for so long a period, a colebrated empirical remedy for the gott. It is used in various forms, either the powdered toot, or vinegar or wine, in which it has been steeped, or, which is considered the best, wine in which the fresh seeds have been steeped. It is also used with benefit in many cases of the uniatic affecnons, which often so much resemble the genn.

Cola His: a fertile country on the Black sea, now Mingrelia and Gariel, on the Rione (Phasis of the ancients). The expedition of the Argonauts first made the Greeks acquainted with this country, the original population of which, according to tradition, was derived from Egypt. The people were celebrated for frugality and industry. Strabo and others tell us that the inhabitants used to place fleeces in the streams, in order to intercept the particles of gold brought down from the mountains by the water. (See Argonauts.)

Concounts (also called crocus martis, and rouge of ingleterre) is an impure, brownish-red oxide of iron, which remains after the disultanon of the acid from the sulphate of iron. It forms a durable color, but is most used by arrists, in polishing glass and metals.

COLD. (See Catarrh.)

Colders, Cadwallader, was the son of the reverend Alexander Colden, of Dunse, in Scotland, and was born Feb. 17, 1688. After studying at the university of Eduaburgh, he devoted limiself to medicine and mathematics, in which he made great proficiency. In 1708, he emigrated to FOL. 111. 27

some years, when he returned to England. and there acquired considerable reputation by a paper on animal secretions. From London he went to Scotland, and repaired again to America, m 1716. He settled a second time in Pennsylvania, but, in 1718, removed to New York. After a residence of a year in this city, he was appointed the first surveyor-general of the lands of the colony, and, at the same time, master in chancery. In 1720, he obtained a seat in the king's council, under governor Burnet. For some time previous to this, he had resided on a tract of land, about nine unles from Newburgh, on Hudson river, for which he had received a patent, where he was exposed, at every mordent, to the attacks of the Indians, the truct being situated on the frontier. In 1761, he wachosen heutenant-governor of New York, and occupied this station during the remainder of his life, being placed repeatedly at the head of affairs by the absence or death of several governors. During one of those periods, the paper intended to be distributed in New York, under the British stamp-not, arrived, and was put under his care, in the fortification called fort George The people assembled or mulitudes, under several leaders, and defermined to cause the paper to be delivere, up and destroyed. But, though the fort was declared untenable by the engineers, and the people threatened to massiere him, Colden defended his trust, and finally succeeded in securing it on board of a Bratish men-of-war, then lying in the port. The populace burned him in effigy, and destroyed his carriages, in his sight. the return of governor Tryon, in 1775, he retired to a seat on Long I-land, where he died, Sept 28, 1776, in the 59th year of his age, a few hours before nearly one tourth part of the city of New York was reduced to ashes.—(Vr. Colden's productions were numeron't consisting of botan-ical and medical essays. Among them is a treatise, showing the causes, and pointing out the remedies, of the yellow fever, which, about the year [1743, desolated New York. He also wrote an account of the prevalent diseases of the climate, and a history of the five Indian nations. But the work which cost him most time and labor, was one published, at first, uxder the title of the Causle of Gravitation; but which, being afterwards much enlargcd, appeared in 1751, with the atle of the Principles of Action in Matter, to Which is annexed a Treatise or Fluxions. He corresponded with many of the most dis-

whom were Linnaeus, Gronovius, the earl of Macelesfield, doctor Franklin, &c. Mr. Colden always took great delight in the , study of bonuny. His descriptions of between three and four hundred American , plants were published in the Acta Upsaciensia. He paid attention also to the chmate, and left a long course of durnal observations on the thermometer, barometer and winds.

Coll Ridge, Samuel Taylor; an English poet, born in 1773, at Ottery St. Mary, in Devonshire, where his father, who had a numerous family, was a clergy man. By the intuence of friends, Coleridge, who was the youngest son, was admitted into the Blue-coat school, as it is called, Christ's ho spital, London, a well-known charitable institution. Here he received an excellent education, and distinguished himself, even then, by uncommon talents and by his eccentricines. In his 19th year, he entered Jesus' college, Cambridge, Poetry and metaphysics were his favorite studies. column of his poetical attempts appeared in 1794, and excited great expectations, which he has but partially satisfied, owing to his invineble indolence and fickleiess. In the same year appeared his Call of Robespierre, a historical dram, which was well received. He shid not escape the enthusiasm for liberty and equality, which then prevaled. At Oxford, he met with congenial spirits in the post routhey, since so celebrated, and Robert Loveti. The three young enthusiasts for the academical halls with the view of reforming the political world. They agreed to be a min Bristol. Coloridge, delivered formers in the approaching happen -- of the human race by means of republicanism, with imbounded applicase from many entersustic young people. Conciones ad Populum, or Addresses to the Prople, and a Protest against certain bills then pending for suppressing seditions in times, also excited a great sensation in Bustol. Prother cares, he was less succeptful, and his journal, the Watchman, attracted but latte notice. He was indemnified by the success bit a second volume of points, which passed through several additions. Despuring of the retorm of the old world, the young preachers of liberty took the resolution of tarrying their the ory into execution in the new, by the foundation of a state, which . should bear the name of Pantisocracy. It was a great pity that this project was bro-ken off by their acquaintance with three beautiful sisters, of the name of l'neker, whom Coleridge, Souther and Lovell mar-

, tinguished characters of the day, among ried. Coleridge took up his abode in Nether-Stowey, near Bridgewater, where he formed an intimacy with the pret Wordsworth. Having no fixed support, he saffered some pecumary emburrassments, but was fortunately relieved by the celebrated Messrs. Wedgewood, who enabled him to complete his studies in Germany learned German in Ratzeburg. His Bugraphia Literaria (London, 1817, 2 vols.) gives some actount of his residence in Germany. Among other things, it cortams some remarks on Ebeling, and as, account of a conversation with Klop stock (2d vol., page 237 - 253), in which the latter gives his opinion of Lessing, Gothe, Wieland, Kotzebne and others' Coleridge then went by the way of Harover to Gottingen, where he attended the lectures of Blumenbach and Eachherr Mer his return, he wrote the leading articies for the Morning Post, nan-lated some dramas of Schiller, and accompanied sig-Mexander Bath as secretary, to Malta He removed from thence, however, without baying obtained any permanent situation He lives, at present, in private, and seems to suffer all the disadvantages of a literary hie, against which he warns others in his biography. He gives lectures, which reward him but poorly, though his talenes are mayor-ally acknowledged The Lorconbooksellers, by whom his labors woul! be well received, complem that he cannot contine lames li to any regular work. His Christabel has fine passages, and was very light, prusid by food Byron. The miscoday one cesays, which he published up der the title of the Priend, are his mospopular productions. He contributes to the Encyclopa and Metropolitana. A list of h - work- is to be found in the Biographical Dictionary of the living Authors of Great Britain and Ireland, and his like it so (with a biographical notices in the New Morthly Magazine of April, 1819. Coleradge is considered, among his countrymen, as a wild and eccentive genus. For German literature he has a great predilection Schiller and Gothe are his favorites. He is also well requainted with German citi. eism, and seems to belong to the school of the Schlegels. He has an antipathy to French Interature almost amounting to a passion.

Colibri. (See Humming-Bird.

Colac (from rate, colon, the name of one of the Intestmes). The appellation of colic is commonly given to all pains in the abdomen, almost indiscriminately; but, from the different causes and circum stances of this disorder, it is differently

When the pain is accomdenominate di panied with a vomiting of bile, or with obstructe costiveness, it is called a bilious colic: if fatus causes the pain, that is, if attended with temporary distention, re-heved by the discharge of wind, it takes the name of fatulent or windy colic; when accompanied with heat and inflammation. it takes the name of inflammatory colic, or enteritis. When this disease arises to a violent height, and is attended with obstrnate cornveness, and an evacuation of figces by the mouth, it is called passio ibava, or there passion. Doctor Culten enumerages ecren species of colic. One of the most agortum is the color pistonum. This is called from the places where it is endersial, the Poicting, the Surmers, the Devoushing eal : from its victions, the phinbers' and the painters' cole : from its symptoms, the a a belly-che, the nervous and space of a It has been auributed to the poison et lead, and this is undoubtedly the croise. then it occups to glaziers painters, and was employed in lead works, but, though t is is one, it is by no means the only case. In D youshire, it certainly more ctem arises from the early order, made of Les nom perfruit, and in the West Indies in the new trans. The characteristics of the decision of obstinate costroness, with a vometing or an aeral or in raceous lile, cans about the region of the navel, shootr g from thence to each side with execssa e volence, strong convulsive spasins in the are stones, and a tendency to a paralysis of the extrematics. It is obgasion dilex long contained costiven so, by a manr dation of acrid biles, by cold applied ever to the extensions or to the to be by a five as coff mapped rate, and y creating a ordy to the mode of live in From its occurring requarity in Devonsee a continue calor contacts. A bashee a s mouse " to acso trans an impression of You receased two the stomach, but this come folio a pustake, as it is noticely presit is discuse to the West Indies blown e. a nervino ende, as me degrand valuare thave solady a very small orantity of lead in the a discomplayed to extract the page from the sugar- ar sea. One or other of the curses just enumerated may postly be seef 'was to give , is to this species of cohe. . The dry belly ache is ally by attended with some degree of Jangor, which is in propertion to the violence of the sympthese, and the duration of the decise. Even schen at does not prove firal, it is too apt to terrenote in jerlsy, and to leave behind d contractions of the hands we i feet, with an make you they persole to perform

their office; and in this miscrable state of existence, the patient lingers out many wretched years.

Coligny, Gaspard de, admiral of France. born in 1516, at Chatillon-sur-Loin, distinguished himself, under Francis I., in the battle of Cerisoles, and under Henry II., who made him colonel-general of the French infantry, and, in 1552, admiral of France. He was distinguished for valor\_. in battle, for strict discipline, and for his conquests over the Spaniards, in particular for his detence of St. Quentur. When St. Quentin was taken by storm, the ad-initial was made prisoner. After the death of Henry II, the intrigues of Catharine de' Medici induced him to place himself at the head of the Columists against the Guses. He formed so powerful a party, that the Catholic religion in France seemed to be in danger. Conde was more ambetween enterprising, active; Coligny more considerate, prudent, and more fit to be the leader of a party; equally unfortunate in war with Conde, but skilled in remedying coen what appeared irretnevable losses. and more to be feared after a defeat than his encurse after a victory, he was, besides, endowed with virtues, which he practised as for as party spirit and the violence of the times permitted him. The first battle between the Huguenots and Catholics (1562, at Dreux) was lost by the admiral, but he saved his army. When the duke of Gaise was murdered at the sego of Orleans, he was boused of being the author of the murders but he cleared iranselt by an eath; it vife imnecessary, the noblem -- of his specificusing him above susperion. The civil ener recommenced with increased fury, no 107. Columy and Conde encountered arriconstable Mont-rene next at 5. Dem p. This indecisive action was followed by the battle of Jamnac car 1569), which was fatal to that meni-Trasts. Conde fall, and the whylated from of command devolved pendent ones, who alore sustained his tpense, but are subjectagain at Moncout college laws; they are lesing his coving to their rank and the penel secure bfor board, noblemen, fellow-(1570) Celefid commoners. The school at was, with balso a college, consisting of a vors Char fellows and 70 boys, who are as an indequeres. The fellows of Lion go her will dit to marry, and to hold a hying sides he ways fellowship. They are also care-ser. A as digintaries of the church. Louvre, Austic provost are the difecture of left arm weremanage the property of the window. A the livings and follow-hips at I am from at the institution, and choose

monastery of St. German l'Auxerrois, according to the plan of Catharine de' Medici, probably with the knowledge of the duke of Guise. Charles testified the deepest sorrow, caused search to be made for the assassin, and said to Coligny, "My father, you have the wounds, but I the pam." This he said at a moment when The massacre of the Protestants was already prepared. The slaughter began on the night of St. Bartholomew's, Aug 24, 1572. See Bartholomere's Day, Saint.) The dake of Guise hastened with a nume rous suite to the house of the admiral A costan Behme, or Beside, at their head, entered with his drawn sword into the chamber of the old man, who, sitting in ar easy chair, said, with a calm mich. to their leader, "Young man, my gray have ought to command the respect; but do as thou pleasest; thou caust shorten my life but a few days," upon shorter my life but a few days." waich the wreten pierced him with several stabs, and threw the body out of the window into the court-yard. The corpse was given up for three days to the for of the people, and fually was hing up by the fect on a gibbet, at Monttaneous Montphoreney, a consoner Coligny, caused it to be taken down, and had it secretly bursed in the chapel of the eastle of Chentry. An Palaure and the food to Camarme, who ordered it to be on tabled and sour to Rone

Carry, So Corris, a town in Bohrma, with 4000 mindrans, 11 leagues rom Prizze, tableaus on account of the bathe which Preprie the Great less here, Jone 1s 1757, tilburst which he lost in the seen years with Colmis alsoknown for the programs stops found the re-

Corrs, etc., e compre men m. Rome. Thes building, whose was 1912 for he You can be need and for much 50 areads. Address the first a applettes are which Roagainst resignment of the circles of these pressing seditions and read to have great sensation in Biss, as by the compatihe was less succeptable as and the same the Watchman, attracted are personals of He was indemnified by the I works of the second volume of poems, was a real held through several editions. Despoint above the reform of the old world, thenter year, preachers of liberty took the resolute towcarrying then the ory into execution he low new, by the foundation of a ste long, and should bear the mame of Pontistder Down was a great pity that this projection of the ken off by their acquaintance a communed beautiful sisters, of the name all the sones whom Coleridge, Southey and the construc-

tion of the palace of St. Mark, and, in later times, some other pulaces were erected from its fragments. At present, cure is taken not to touch the runs of the Cohseum, but it is gradually crumbling away of itself, and in a few centuries, perhaps, nothing more may be seen of its upper part; the lower part, however, will last for ever. The enclosures in which the wild animals were kept are still standing, and remind us of the times when their builders were devoured by the beasts, to gratify the savage taste of the people, Benedict XIV caused a cross to be creeted in the centre of the grena, where, every Sunday afternoon, Catholic worship is performed. A hermit resides in these vast tums. The Cohseum received its name from the colossal statue of Nero, which was placed in it. There is in Rome a model of the Cohsenin, as it was when complete, on a pretty large scale. The traveller, after hering viewed this immerise building by day light, should return to gaze again by the light of the moon, when vs grandem is really amazing - Very recently, an enormous structure, called Colmount, has been creeted in Regent's park, London, charly by a Mr. Horner It is divided into three pertsection penotion is or arand view of London, of which many points of view are afforded by the ascent of a winding stancase (for people who do not want the treable of walking up, air escending root its provided, the suites of rooms for subscribers, and the conservitory with greenhouses and fury creations. The whole shows great ingenutry, applied to objects of comparatively buth in pertance

Certain for Receives (collaterate) descendants of a above or sisters or the brodiers or sisters of the ascendang lines. In pobies, collateral lines have often played on emportant part, and great real-oneses have the quently existed between the collateral lines of a riding tamby.

Corrytion is the comparison of manascripts in order to escentian the true realing or an arrhor. This is often a very important operation, is manuscripts were frequently read, by people, who did not understand what they wrote, or wrote very care besty. Among the moderns, the Germens have done most in collation; for ustance. Emerned Belsker, of Berlin, for Plate. Nieladia and Bludme, for various authors in the libraries of Italy; G. H. Pertz, in regard to manuscripts relating to the early history of Germany, in the Italpor and German intrains.

Corta Chales, a diamatic poet, born

in 1709, at Paris. His early connexion with Haguemer, Gallet and Pannard, writers of Anacreontic songs and vaude-valles, instilled into him the same inclination for pleusure, the same gay philosophy. Dramatic poetry he loved from his earliest youth. Some of his pieces are still found in the Repertoire du Thiâtre Français. He pains freely, may holdly, the manners of his time. He died in 1783. In 1807 appeared his posthimnous work, Journal Historique, giving an account of interesting events in the history of hterature from 1748 to 1772, in 3 vols.

Collegium), in its priany sense, a collection or assembly. In a general sense, a collection or society of tion invested with certain powers and rights, performing certain diffies, or engaged in some common employment or pursuit. Among the Romans, three were equired to make a college (tres faciunt ollegrum). -In a particular sense, college ognities an assembly for a political or ecdesastical purpose. There were several such at Rome, e.g., collegium pontificum, cagurum, septembirorum, & c. In modern times, we have the college of electors, or 'nen deputies, at the diet of Ratishon; so," elso, the college of princes or their depuues, the college of cities or deputies of the appeard caties, the college of cardinals, or s cred college. In Russia, this denomiation is given to councils of state, courts ; assembles intrusted with the administration of the government, and called *un*irial colleges - In Great Bryain and the States, a society of physicians is called college. So, also, there are colleges of sargeons, a college of philosophy, a colage of heralds, &c Colleges of these ands are usually incorporated or estabshed by the supreme power of the state This name is also given to a society of ersons engaged in the pursuits of literature, including the officers and students, The English literary colleges are academical establishments, endowed with revemes whose fellows, stifdents and tutors ve together under a head, in particular problems, in a morastic way. The build-225 form quadrangles connected with and grounds. The more ancient stablishments, formerly monasteries, deave their origin from the 13th and 14th centuries. The college of Christ-church (Oxford) was founded in the time of Henay VIII, by cardinal Wolsey. The colleges are distaignished for their old Gothie exhibite time, and for collections in differon branches of science and of art. They ere . So whimled for their fine paintings on

glass. The president of such a college (master, warden, rector) forms, with the other members of the government, the teachers and students, a corporation independent of the other colleges, as well as of the university. Graduates, maintained by the endowments of particular founders, are called fellows (in Latin, socii). There are other classes also supported in part by the funds of the colleges, and called post-masters and scholars, exhibitioners or stipendiaries and servitors (young men who wait on the others at table, and have board and instruction gratis during Many colleges have also four years). chaplams, choristers, clerks or sextons, and a great number of ervants. The president and the officers administer the college according to the statutes of the foundation. The visitor, who is a bishop or lord, named by the founder, decides in contested cases. The under-graduates are subjected to a severe discipline. They are obliged to go every day to the chapel, and are not allowed to sleep out of the college. Whoever wishes for a degree, must be presented to the university, as a candidate by a dean. The fellows at the universities keep their fellowships for life, unless they marry or inherit estates which afford a greater revenue. They are successively promoted, so that their income amounts to from £30 to £150, and more, annually. From them the parishes are supplied, in which case they commonly lose then fellow-hips. Oxford has 19 coffeges, and to halls, or mere boardingplaces, which have no finds, and consequently no fellows, where every suddent lives at his own expense. (The duringrooms of the colleges are also called halls.) In Cambridge, there are 12 colleges and 4 halls, which are all provided with finds. Most of the colleges in Oxford and Cambridge have, besides their dependent members, that is, those who are supported from the college funds, independent ones, who live at their own expense, but afe subjected to plost of the college laws; they are called, according to their rank and the suni they pay for board, noblemen, fellowcommoners and commoners. The school at Eton has also a college, consisting of a provost, 7 fellows and 70 boys, who are called collegers. The fellows of Liton have a right to marry, and to hold a hying besides their fellow-hip. They are also considered as dignitaries of the church. They and the provost are the directors of the whole, manage the property of the college, fill the livings and fellow-hips connected with the institution, and choose

27 X

the teachers. Of the collegers in Eton, the best scholar in the highest class is admitted into the first vacant place of King's college at Cambridge as a scholar, and then becomes at three years, a fellow, i. e., is provided for during life. (See Ackermann's History of the Colleges of Winchester, Eton, Westminster, &c., London, 1817, and has History of Westminster, Abbey, and of the Colleges of Orford and Cambridge, with copperplates.) Classical literature is the chief object of instruction; hence the general knowledge which, in England, men of the jughest rank and of the greatest wealth possess of Greenan and Roman literature, exhibited in the frequent quotations from the classics, in parhament, which, in any other country, would appear somewhat pedantic. The lectures on scientific subjects are meager, compared with those of the continental universities, and afford scarcely the necesary funts for private study. The colleges are less institutions for education than learned republics with an orderly gradation of classes, of which one influences the other, and which are miniately connected with the spirit of the nation." (See The English universities Universities. exercise no small influence upon the cccle-ta-tical and political establishments of that country, and have certainly contributed much to the national disposition for adhering steadily, and sometimes obstinately, to ancient establishments, customs and views. The old universities, therefore, have been thought, by'a large number of enlightened and liberal men, not to answer the demands of the age. To meet these demands, they have established the London university, (q. v.) This again, on the same principle on which the Protestact reformation led to many sidutary reforms among the Catholics, induced another party the churchmen; to establish in the English metropolis the King's college. (q. v.)

In France, there are royal colleges in all large towns, corresponding to what are called, in Germany, gymnasia. In the small towns, the colleges are called colleges communaus. These are private establishments, anded by the commune, and subject to the surveillance of the public authorities. In Paris, there are five royal colleges—college royal de Louis-le-Grand, col. roy. de Henry IV, col. roy. de St. Louis, col. roy. de Hourbon, col. roy. de Charlemagne. Besides these, there is the college royal de France, which deserves the name of a university. It was instituted in 1529, by Francis I, at the solicitation of Budaeus.

(q. v.) Louis XVIII established in this college a chair of Tartar-Mantchou and Chinese languages, and one of the Sanscrit. 21 professors, among whom there are always some of the most distinguished men, lecture in this college, publicly and gratuitously. Their lectures embrace, besides the branches of science generally taught in universities, the Turkish, Persian, Arabic, Chaldaic, Syriac, Chinese, Sanscrit and Tartar-Mantchou languages.

American Colleges. The course of instruction in all the American colleges is completed in four years. Certain qualifi-cations are demanded of candidates for admission, which vary, according to the regulations of the different colleges. These embrace, for admission to the principal colleges, a good knowledge of English grammar, arithmetic, some acquaintance with geography, an ability to read the caser Laun authors, and some progress in the study of Greek. rules of each college name the authors which the candidate shall have read, and in these he is required to undergo a satisfactory examination, to entitle him to adimssion. The greatest number of pupils are admitted at about the age of 14 years. The course of instruction varies, is many respects, in the different colleges, but in its principal features, it is the same in all. This course embraces a mather study of the Latin and Greek languages, mathematics, natural philosophy, rhetoric, and practice in English composition, moral and intellectual philosophy, and some treatise of natural law and the law of nations. In some colleges, provision is made for the study of Hebrew and of several modern languages; but these are not among the reguned studies. Some of the colleges have additional departments for instruction in medicine, theology or law. Harvard university embraces all three of these departments, in which students are prepared for entering on these several professions. The number of professors and teachers in the several colleges varies according to the number of pupils and the funds of the college. In Harvard college, there are in the academical departments eight professors and six tutors and other teachers; in the theological school, two professors, in addition to the professors in the other departments, who assist in the instructions of this school; in the law school, two professors, and in the medical school, four. In Vale college, there are five professors and six tutors, besides the professors of the theological and medical schools. In most of the colleges, the officcis of instruction are a president, from two to four permanent professors, and from two to four tutors—the tutors being generally young men who devote two or three years to this service before entering on the practice of the professions to which they are flestined. From the following list, it will be seen how many colleges in the U. States were founded during the last ten years; and for others charters have already been granted by the legislatures, as for the Randolph Macon college, at Boydton, in Virginia. The cause of

this increase is undoubtedly laudable, as it is the same which prompts every man in the U. States to acquire knowledge; but it ought not to be forgotten, that colleges differ entirely from common schools. The latter may be multiplied, and there can hardly be too many of them; but for colleges, the only way to make them truly great is to concentrate in a few, great stores of talent and erudition. In the universities of Europe, donation has been added to donation, until many of them have attained great magnificence.

Table containing the proper Title of each College, the Place where it is situated, the Time when founded the Number of Academic Instructors, the Number of Gradientes in 1828; the Number of Under-fraduates in 1828, the Number of Volumes in the College Libraries, and in the Social Libraries belonging to the Students.

Name	Place	When founded	No of ac- wherence Instira	Gradu- ate in 1826	('pder- gruinales 1#259	Volumes in College Libraries	Volumes 10 Stud'ts. Lebraries
Waterville.	Waterville, Manne	1820	5	12		1700	500
Bowdom.	Brunswick Mame.	1791	7	20	107	8000	4300
Partmouth.	Henover, N. H. 🕛	1769	8,	41	128	3500	8000
Middle bury.	Middlebury Vt	1800	5	18	81	1646	1300
Crinont University,	Burlington Vt	1791	5	1	33	1300	1000
Villiams,	Williamstown, Mass	1793	7	18	42	2100	1660
Amherst,	Amla rst, Mass	1821	. 9	40	211	2300	3140
Tayard University,	Cambridge, Mass.	linki	15	52	254	30000	1600
Brown University.	Providence, R. 1	17/110	6	25	98	6000	5750
Weshington.	Hartford Conn	1826	4	15	71	5000	1200
l'ale	New Heven Coun	17(0)	16	82	321	8500	6500
oluniya.	New York cay	1751					
mon.	Schenectary, Y	1794	9	69	203	3000	8000
lamiton	Clumon, N.Y	1812		11		1	1 3000
91 .1' V.d.	Geneva NY	1025	3	3	.20	390	560
Rugers	New Brunswick, N. J.	1770	6	20	63		1 00.7
Nassan Hall	Princeton, N.J.	174		26	43	8000	4000
inversity of Pennsylvania	Pan idelphia, Peim	1755	5	īi	30	110.1.	7.07
lefterson	Canonsburg, Penn	1802	i	28	(9)	600	1700
Da lan on.	Carsle, Penn	1783	6	22	112	2000	5000
Maslangton,	Washington Penn	IMP.	3	1 11	31	100	525
Western University.	Pittsburg Penn	1820		1 6	41	HIU	325
M adison	The state of the s	417-11				1	550
Affeguany, •	Meadville, Penn	1015	3		12	7000	l
Mary's	Balumac, Vol	1805	1.3			1(HKN)	
olumbia.	Washington D C	1821	1,		60	3000	1000
uncests of Vugma.	Charlotte sville Va	igii	Ü		131	8000	1000
Lampden Sidney	Prince Edward Co Va	*****	. "			OCCO	1
William and Maty.	Williamsburg Va	1691	7	3	10.3	3400	600
Washington.	Lexington, Va	iai2	'	17,	23	700	1500
myersity of North Carolina	Chapel Hall N C	1791	.,	13	51	1 110	1300
'myersay of South Carolina	Columbia, S. C.	1802				i	l
haleston.	Charleston, S. C.	1785	3	6	42	1000	l
no Geo or Franklin Coll	Athens, Geo	1785	6	20	105	2000	- 1820
	Nashville, Tenn	10thi	7	16	34	2000	r 1020
inversity of Nashville,	Knoyville Tenn	IO(R)		13	21	340	3000
Last Tennessee.	Augusta, Kv.	• 1822	i -	''	82	1500	200
Angusta	Greenville, Tenn			ì	32		N K R J
ireenville College,	Athens, Ohio	1701		10	60.	3500	100
niversity of Ohro,	Oxtord, Oho	1802	3	9	15 ·	1842	946
Miami University.		1821	ر	.,	50	İ	1
Transvivama University,	Lexington, Ky	70.00	1	1			
Western Reserve College,	Hudson, Ohio	1620		,	.30		1
Bloomington College, 🐪	Bloomington, Ind	1828		·			•
	•	1	217	1,12	2928	129318	1

For more particulars, see the places where the colleges are established.

<sup>\*</sup> The catalogue of the others and students in the various departments of Transplyania University, for the year 1830, exhibits a total of 302.—Aut. Gazette

COLLEGE, ELECTORAL. (Son Election.) COLLEGE OF CIVILIANS; commonly called Doctor's Commons, founded by doctor . Harvey, dean of the arches, for the professors of the civil law residing in the city of London. The judges of the arches, admiralty, and prerogative courts, with several other emment civilians, common-· ly reside here. To this college belong 34 proctors, who make themselves parties for their clients, manage their causes, give licenses for marriages, &c. In the common hall of Doctor's Commons are held several courts, under the jurisdiction of the civil law, particularly the high court of admiralty, the court of delegates, the arches court of Canterbury, and the prerogative court of Canterbury, whose terms for sitting are much like those at Westminster, every one of them holding several court-days, most of them fixed and known by preceding holydays, and the rest appointed at the judge's pleasure.

Collegial System, in ecclesiastical law (see Church). In politics, it is opposed to burraucracy (see Burcau), and signifies that system of governments in which the members of each department of government have all a voice in the decision of measures, so that each branch of government is carried on by a collegium, not by a single president. This system has both great advantages and disadvan-

tages.

Collegiants. (See Rheinbergheis.) Collegiower. (See Cabbage.)

Collin, Henry Joseph von, born at Vimna m 1772, was the son of a physician. He rose, by degrees, to an important place in the financial department of the Austrian government. He sacraticed his techle health, and even his favorite inclination for poetry, to the dates of his office, in which he labored with an assiduity that at length put an end to his life. He died of a nervous fever in 1811. Having laid a wager with a friendeto write a tragedy within six weeks, he produced his first drama, Regulus, the plan of which he had arranged before. It was followed by Coriolanus, Polyrena, Balbea, Bunca della Porta, Moon, and Die Horatier und Curiatier. A selection of his smaller poems appeared in Vienna, after his death, with fragments of his epic poem Rudolf von Habsburg. His works are characterized by a spirit nourished on the ancient classics, and by a vigorous simplicity. They are sometimes, however, rather frigid and They are not very fim-hed productions. A complete edition appeared in Vie**nna**, 1814, 6 vols.

Collin, Mattheus von, brother of the preceding, in 1808, became professor of assiletics and philosophy at Cracow. In 1815, he was appointed tutor of the duke of Reichstadt (son of Napoleon). He died in 1824. As a dramatic poet, he ranks below his brother. In 1813, he was editor of the Literary Gazette of Vienna, and, in 1818, of the Vienna Annals of Literature (Wiener Jahrbücher der Literatur).

Collin D'HARLEVILLE, Jean Francois, born 1750, at Maintenon, near Chartses. abandoned the profession of the law, and enriched the French stage with characterpieces, as L'Inconstant, L'Optimiste, Les Chateaux en Espagne, Monsieur de Crae dans son petit Castel, Les Artistes. In his earliest pieces, he wrote by rule, but subsequently followed the bent of his own germs. In his best piece, the Lieur Celibalaire, he returned, however, to the estabhshed principles of the French theatre. In general, his coinedies are blamed as deficient in humor, and his comic characters as wanting in individual traits. In lus allegorical poem, Melpomene et Thalic, we find natural case combined with sentimental philosophy, but often prosacverses. He died in 1806.

Collingwood, Cuthbert, first baron: a native of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, born in 1748, and educated at the same school with Sord-chancellor Eldon, under Mr. Moises. He entered the royal may in 1761, and, in the action of June 1, 1794, was flag-captain on board the Prince, commanded by adminal Bowver. In 1797, Le commanded the Excellent during the bat tle of cape St. Vincent, on the 14th of Pelmary in that year, and having, in 1799. been made r 21-admiral of the white, wapromoted, ra 1-01, to the red. In 1804. being then vice-admiral of the blue, he assisted in the blockade of Brest harbor, but his most distinguished service \* as the part he bore in the great victory of Trafalgar, in which his gidlant manner of bringing his ship into action, and the skill and resolution with which he fought her, excited the personal admiration of Nelson himself, upon whose lamented fall, the command of the fleet devolved upon him as the semor otherr. In this critical situation, adimral Collingwood evinced a degree of promptitude and nautical skill, combined with prudence, which tended much to the preservation of the captured vessels, and proved his judgment as a commander to be not inferior to his courage. For his valuable services on this and other occasions, he was promoted to be vice-admiral of the red, continued in

his command of the fleet, and elevated to been peculiarly adapted for the higher a barony. His death took place while ' cruising off Minorca, in the Ville de Paris, on the 7th of March, 1810. His remains were carried to England, and deposited in St. Paul's, near those of his friend Nelson. Collingwood appears to have been a model of a naval officer. He was distingushed for zeal, courage, humanity, circonspection, and strictness of discipline. Though hardly any man had more expemence in the government of sailors, he was an enemy to flogging. His letters to his children are full of excellent senuments and judicious advice. Every young naval officer should be familiar with the Public and Private Correspondence of the Vice-Admiral Collingwood, with Memoirs of his Life (8vo., 3d edition, London, 1828).

Courts-, William, a distinguished poet, was born in 1720 or 1721, at Chichester, where his father was a hatter. He was educated at Winchester school and at Oxford. While at college, he wrote his Oriental Eclogues, which were print-ed in 1742. Their success was moderate, and, in 1714, the author went to London as a literary adventurer. In 1746,he gave his Odes, Descriptive and Alles gorical, to the public, but the sale did not pay for the printing, and the indignant and sensitive poet burnt all the unsold copies. Act among these odes were hany pieces which at present milk with the finest lyrics in the language. Pecunsary distress followed this disappointment; and, aided by the advance of a few gumens from the booksellers for 'an intended transation of the Poetics of Aristotle, he was enabled to escape into the country, whence he found means to pay a visit to his micle, colonel Martin, then with the British army in Germany. The death of this relation, who bequeathed him a legaev of £2000, raised min to comparative affluence; and he immediately retiring the booksellers their advance, being reduced, by nervous debility, to an after incapability of any species of mental exertion. Originally too laxly strung, disapponument, distress and pregularity had completely disarranged his nervous system. Dreadful depression of spirits fol-, lowed, for which he had no better remedy than the fatal one of the bottle Although he did not suffer from absolute abenation of mind, it was thought best to confine han m a lunatic asylum; but, finally, he was consigned to the care of a sister, in whose arms he terminated his brief and melancholy career, in 1756. Collins, by. his taste and attainments, appear to have

walks of poetry. His odes, from which he derives his chief poetical fame, notwithstanding the disparaging temarks of doctor Johnson, are now almost universally regarded as the first productions of the kind in the English language for vigor of conception, boldness and variety of personification, and genuine warmth of feeling. The originality of Collins consists, not in his sentiment, but in the highly figurative garb in which he clothes abstract ideas, in the felicity of his ex-pressions, and in his skill in embodying 'ideal creations. His chief defect is an occasional mysticism. His temperament was, in the strictest meaning of the word, poetical; and had he existed under happier circumstances, and enjoyed the undisturbed exercise of his faculties, he would probably have surpassed most, if not all, of his contemporaries, during the very pro-nic period which immediately followed the death of Pope.

Colloredo; one of the most illustrious families in Austria, originally from Friuli. The members of one branch, Colloredo Mansfeld, have been since 1763 princes of the empire. To the family of Colloredo belong, 1. l'abriens, born 1576, who was sent as ambassador by Cosmo II, of Medici, to the emperor Rodolph II. 2. Rodolph, count Waldsee, field-marshal of the imperial armies, distinguished in the thirty years' war, particularly at Lutzen, and, in 164c, by the defence of Prague; 3. Jerome, born 1775, master-general of the ordnance, commanded in 1813 the first division of the army at Culm (q. v.), died in 1822, while commander-in-clief ın Bohemia.

Corror o'Herbois, Jean Marie, an actor without talents, and a member of the minmous minnerpality of Paris, Aug. 10 and Sept. 2, 1792, and afterwards of the national convention, was bainshed, after the fall of Robespierre, to Cavenne, where he died in 1796. He proposed in the first session of the national convention to abolish royalty, and to declare the govcrument a republic. In Lyons, he introduced the shooting en masse, when the guillotines, though, according to the techmeal expression, en permanence, were found no longer sufficient.

 Convex. George: a dramatic writer and elegant scholar of the last century; born at Florence, in 1733; his father being at that time British envoy to the grand duke's . court. From Westminster school he was removed, at the usual age, to Christ church, Oxford, where he was graduated, as mas-

ter of arts, in 1758, having previously, in conjunction with his friend Bonnel Thornton, published a series of essays after the as a critic in a very respectable point manner of the Spectator, under the title of The Connoisseur. This lively work, which came out weekly, was continued from Jan. 1, 1754, till towards the close. of the year 1750, and tended much to establish his reputation, and procure him the friendship of most of the acknowledged wits of the day. At the desire of his relation, lord Bath, he turned his thoughts to the law, entered humself of Lincoln's Inn, and even went so far as to be called \*to the bar; but his genius soon turned to . the more congenial study of the belleslettres. His poetical vein had, some time previously displayed itself in various occasional pieces; but his first drainatic attempt was made in the year 1760, when his Polly Honeycombe was brought out, with great temporary success, at Drury The year following, he produced the well-known comedy of the Jealous Wife, which not only excited great attention at the time, but, as well as his Char-, destine Marriage, has remained an estabtished favorite ever since. The English Merchant, the Oxonian in Town, and a long list of other pieces of less note, but , not deficient in merit, followed in succes**sion,** in the composition of some of which he was assisted by his friend Garrick. In 1764, his pecuniary resources were much increased by a hand-ome among bequeathed him by lord Bath; and an addition to his fortune, which he acquired three years after, by the decease of general Pultency, enabled hun, the followingsummer, to purchase Mr. Beard's share in Covent-garden theatre. Owing, however, to variances with his partners in the concern, he was induced to dispose of his portion of the property almost as soon as he had acquired it; and to purchase, in lieu of it, the little theatre in the Hayearket, which he bought at Foote for an annuity, and continued in the personal superintendence of it till the year 1790, when a paralytic attack not only deprived him. of the use of one side, but entirely plunged his faculties into a hopeless state of derangement. He nevertheless lingered on, in a lunatic asylum at Paddington, till 1794, in which year his decease took place. Besides the writings already enumerated,. and a large variety of others of the same class, his classical attainments, and the purity of his taste, are evinced by his elegant and spirited translation of Horace's Att of Poetry, published in 1783, and of the Comedies of Terences to the

former of which is prefixed an ingenious Commentary, which places his acumen of view.

Cologne (in German, Köln); formerly a free city of the empire, and seat of the electoral chapter of Cologne. The archbishop of Cologne was formerly a sovereign prince, and one of the most important members of the German empire. He resided at Bonn. Cologne is now the capital of the Prussian district Cologne, in the province of Cleves-Berg, the seat of an archbishop, a high-president, the government, and the court of appeal for the Rhenish provinces, a tribunal of the first instance, and many public institutions. It is one of the largest and oldest German cities on the left bank of the Rhine. It is a league in length, in the form of a semicircle, and was built by Agrippina, the wife of the emperor Claudius. The streets are narrow, dirty and lonely. With the decline of the Hansentic league, to which it belonged, this city lost its riches, and, under the French government, its opulent clergy, and beautiful works of art. The great ware-houses are still standing as monuments of the past, but only a small number of the new buildings are distinguished for beauty. The handsomest public places are, the new market with itlime-trees, the hay market, and the old market. Cologne has 20 churches, 5 monasteries, 7060, houses, and upwards of 54,000 mhabitants, besides the garrison. One of the noblest works of Gothic architecture is the unfinished cathedral, in the form of a cross, 400 feet long, and 180 wide. It was in the course of erection from the year 1248 until the reformation. Only the choir, 200 feet high, with the chapel around it, is completed. The nave is supported by 100 columns, of which the middle ones are 40 feet in circumference; but it has only two thirds of its intended height, and is covered with a Each of the towers was wooden roof. designed to be 500 feet high; 250 feet of one is finished, and only 21 of the other. Behind the high altar is the chapel of the Magi, built of marble, in the Tome style. In a magnificent box are deposited a few relies. On the left side of the chon is the golden chamber; with the treasury of the cathedral; but it no longer enjoys its nucient riches. Respecting the original plan of the church, which has been discovered, see George Müller's Beschreibung (Description), with 9 engravings, large folio, and 26 pages of text (1818), and Bosserée's work, Ueber den Dom zu Köln (On the

(1824). The church of St. Gereon has a lofty dome and three galleries. The church of St. Cunibert has an altar like the famous alter of St. Peter's church in The church of St. Peter has an admirable 'painting, by Rubens, of the martyrdom of the apostle Peter. In the religious establishment of St. Ursula, for noble ladies, the visitor sees, he is assured. the relies of the 11,000 virgins. These are arranged on shelves, and make a formidable appearance. The town-house in Cologne has a splendid portico, adomed with two rows of marble columns. The Jesuits' library, though it has been deprived of many works, still contains 60,000 and 820 W.; extending over a surface of volumes. Many paintings in the monas- 1,100,000 square miles. It is bounded on teries and churches were carried off or destroyed by the French. (See Boisscrie.) The city, however, still contains some beautiful collections of works of art. It is tayorably situated for trade, forming an intermediate point between Germany and Holland, and its commerce, particularly in Rhenish wine, or book, is very considerable. The trade in cloth, linen, lace, cotton and silk, tobacco and earthen ware is still important; likewise, the distillation of Cologne water, or can de Cologne, of which several million bottles are exported every year. There are 15 manufactories of it, and the trathe has been constantly mereasing since the seven years' wai. The bottles are made in Stoliberg, three leagues from Arx. As a great city, where magazines can be conveniently established, and military provisions obtained, as a s convenient place for crossing the Rhine, as an intermediate point between Wesel and Coblentz, as a point of meeting of many roads, and as constituting a part of the basis (q. v.), from which must proceed the operations of the German armies against the Netherlands and France, Cologne is of great military importance. The fortifications were restored in 1815. They are strengthened by a chain of casemated towers, which contain several stories, and each a few cannon. These are placed at some distance from the city, as separate and detached works. Cologne has thus become a strong place, though not, indeed, so important a fortress as Coblentz. The small city of Deutz, on the right bank of the Rhine, opposite Cologne, is fortified, and thus completes the double tett-de-pont. In former times, Cologne was a very powerful city, and its university famous. The merchants of Cologne, who settled in London under Ehzabeth's reign, gave a great impulse to the English com-

Cathedral of Cologue), with engravings merce. The old Chronicle of Cologue, written in low German, is a highly interesting work: The east de Cologne is farnous throughout Europe and America, though only a small part of what is sold under this name is genuine. One of the best ways of distinguishing the genuine from the spurious is, to rub a few drops on the hand, when the good eau de Cologne must neither sinell of any spirituous liquor, nor of musk, nor any foreign substance, but only of the ethereal odor

proper to the water. COLOMBIA, the republic of, in South America, is comprised between lat. 129 30 N., and 6' S.; and between lon. 58' the north by the Caribbean sea, east by Guiana and Brazil, south by Brazil and Peru, and west by the Pacific ocean; on the north-west, it borders on the republic of Central America. The face of the country is remarkable: the western part contains the loftiest ridges of the Andes (q. v.), while the eastern stretches out into immense plains, intersected by gigantic rivers. Towards the southern part (Quito) are found the celebrated summits of Chimborazo, Antisana, Pichincha, Cotopaxi, Colocache, &c. In this Thibet of the new world, in the valleys of the Andes, raised 10,000 feet above the surface of the ocean, the population of that part of the country is concentrated. Farther north, the height of the mountains is less, and in New Grenada, the Cordillera is divided into three parallel chains, of which only the two lateral ones are of great elevation. Besides the Andes, the principa! chain is that of Caracas, running along the north coast, with summits of fronc 12,000 to 14,000 feet high. The principal lake is lake Maracaibo in Venezuela; the imaginary lake Parima has disappeared from the maps. The most important rivers of Colombia are the Magdalena, the Amazon (q. v.), and the Orinoco (q. v.) The Amazon receives all the streams on the eastern declivity of the Andes, south of lat. 3° N. North of that point, they flow into the Orinoco. The immense plants in the east, stretching from Merida to Guiana, and from the chain of the Caracas to the Amazon, are partly mundated and fertilized by the waters of the Orinoco, and partly composed of bare deserts called llanos. (q. v.) The climate, in a country of such extent, and of so remarkable a diversity of elevation, must differ exceedingly. In Venezuela, the year is completely divided by the rainy and the dry

season, the former commencing in November, and ending in April. New Gre- that a small canal has actually been dug nada comprehends a remarkable variety rof climate: temperate, even cold and frosty, but healthy on the elevated table lands, the air is burning and pestilential on the sea-chore, and in some of the deep valleys of the interior. At Carthagena and Guayaquil, the yellow fever is endemic. (See New Grenula, l'enezuela and Quito.) Among the productions of the vegetable kingdom we mention cacao, Peruvian bark, coffee and indigo, sugar, cotton and tobacco. Gold, platma, silver, cinnabar, are among the numeral riches of the republic. The puncipal articles of export are cacao, indigo, tobecco, coffee, hides and cattle. The imports are manufactured goods of ' almost every description. The contriband trade has been carried on to such an extent by the foreign colonies in the neighborhood, that it is impossible, from the custom-house returns, to form any estimate of the real value of the imports or exports. The Dutch in Curaçoa have been engaged in this trade for nearly two centuries, and the English have recently prosecuted it very extensively from Trimidad, Jamaica and Guana; and such are the facilities afforded by the vicinity of these colonies, the extent of coast, and the navigation of the Ormeco, that a will be very difficult to suppress it. In 1825, the exports from La Guayra and Porto Cabello amounted to \$1,885,257, of which more than two thirds were to the United States, the unports, during the same period, amounted to \$3,428.042. M. Molhen U oyage dans la Rep. de Colombia, Paris, 1-23) estimates the total amount of exports at \$5,000,000, and the imports at \$10,000,000. The ports of La Guayra, Rio del Hacha, Santa Martha, Carthagena, Chagres, Porto Cabello, Panama and Guayaquil are the most thequented by foreigners. Various plans have been proposed for connecting the two oceans by cantle. The small river Chagre, which falls into the Caribbean sea a little west of Porto Bello, is navigable to Cruces, five leagues from Panama. The elevation of the country between , Cruces and Panama has never been accurately ascertained, but, it is supposed, would interpose no obstacle to a canal for beats, though it might be wholly impossithe to construct one for large vessels. A branch of the Rio Atrato, which falls into the gulf of Darien, approaches within 5 or 6 leagues of the Pacific ocean, and the intervening country is quite level, and proper for a canal. Another branch of the Rio Atrato approaches so near to a

small river which falls into the Pacific, between them, by means of which, when the rains are abundant, canoes loaded with cace'o pass from see to sea. By means of the Orinoco and its tributary streams, all the country south of the chain of Venezuela enjoys an easy communication with the sea. This river forms a natural channel for the conveyance to the occan of the cattle and produce raised on the banks of the Apure, and its wide-spreading branches. By means of the Meta, also, a progable communication is opened almost to the very foot of the Andes. The flour, and other productions of an extensive district near Bogota, are conveyed to market by the Orinoco, in preference to the Magdalena. The republic is composed of the three colonial governments of Quito, New Grenada and Venezuela, and, by the law of June 23, 1821, is subdivided into twelve departments, namely,

1. The Isthmus.

7. Cundmamarca,

2. Magdalena. 3. Zuba,

8. Boyaca.

4. Venezuela, Ormoco,

9. Apine, 10. The Equator, 11. Gnavagini,

Cauca, 12. Asnay.

These are composed of 49 presumes, which are again subdivided into 218 cantons, and each canton into municipalities. The population may be esimated at about 2,711.000 It is composed of whites, Indians, mestizoes, Negroes and mulantoes, one half being of the mixed races, one quarter creoles, one eighth Indians, and the remander, Negroes and Europeans Travellers have observed that beauty, vigor and conrage are more common in the raxed races. The creoles or wintes, as they are called, have in general some Indian or black blood in their venis. Those on the sea-coast have the Spanish Teatures, but little beard; those of the more elevated regions resemble the inhabi stants of the north of Europe, but they commonly have the black, stiff hair of the Indians. The gotte is very common at some parts of Colombia; the pure Indians and Negroes, however, are not afflicted with it. The Acgroes are found principally in the maritime parts of the country. The new government has decreed that from the 'year 1860 all slavery shall cease in the republic. The principal towns besides those already mentioned are, Bogota (the capital), Curacas, St. Thomas, Quito, Popayan, Cuenca, Riobambo, Otobalo, Merida, Cumana, Maracaibo, Barcelona, Guanare and Truxillo. All the Indians

hiros, who are about 30,000 in number, and occupy a tract along the coast to the west of the gulf of Maracaibo. They often make inroads upon the neighboring settlements. The Guaraunos, who inhabit the islands formed by the mouths of the Orinoco, are about 8000 in number. Caribs occupy the coast of Spanish Guiana, between the mouths of the Essequibo and the Orinoco. Besides these tribes, all the country on the Orinoco above the cataracts of Atures, and indeed all the immense tract between the sources of the Ormoco and those of the Amazon, are inhabited by nations of savages, who have hitherto resisted all the efforts of the Spaniards to civilize or subdue them. The Catholic religion has been declared the established religion of the state; but all The establishment others are tolerated. is composed of 2 archbishops and 10 bishops: the clergy are rich and powerful; some of them distinguished themselves in the revolution by their democratic principles. Colombia has four universities—at Quito, Bogota, Caracas and Merida; that of Bogota is merely a theological seminary; the three others are vitended for students in the other branches. Provision also been made for the establishment of primary schools, high schools and pro-. vincial colleges; but the imsettled state of the country allows but little to be effected.

Historical Sketch. The republic of Cotombia is of very recent origin, although the history of the three states, by the union of which it has been formed, is coeval with the era of Columbus. Previously to the period of the revolution, they were known by the names of the rice-royalty of New Grenala, the captain-generalship of Caracas, and the presidency of Quito. Of their annals prior to the union, a brief

sketch will here be given.

Quito. The provinces of Quito, having formed a component part of the Peruvian empire at the time of the Spanish conquest, continued to depend directly on the government of Peru until Sept. 1564, when they were erected into a separate presidency. In 1717, the government was suppressed, and the country incorporated into the vice-royalty of New Gre-

have been declared free since the revolution. Many of the Indian tribes have remained so until it became a part of Coheen brought into subjection to the whites; hombia. The revolution commenced Aug., and have become partially civilized by the 10,4899, when the president, count Ruis labors of the Catholic missionaries. They de Castilla, was deposed, and a justice selves, and to be governed by magistrates of their own choice. The principal Indians remaining unsubdued are the Coalina remaining un afterwards, the Spaniards, under Montes; regained Quito, and continued to hold the presidency until May, 1822, when the victory of Pichincha, gained by general Su-

New Grenada. The coasts of New Grenada, which border on the Caribbean sea, were first visited by Columbus, during his fourth voyage. Ojeda and Amerigo Vespucci followed Columbus in exploring, parts of the coast, and Vespucci gave the's first regular description of the people who, inhabited its shores. In the year 1508, Ojeda and Nicuessa obtained extensive grants in this and the adjoining country. Ojeda had the country from cape de la-Vela to the gulf of Darien, which was to be styled New Andalusia; and Nicuessa. was appointed to govern from the guif. of Darien to cape Gracias a Dios; the territory included within these points to be named Golden Castile. The province of Terra Firma, including both the grants: of Nicuessa and Ojeda, was given, by a subsequent charter, in 1514, to Pedro Arias de Avila. Under the orders of Avila, the western coast of Panama, Veragua and Darien was explored as far north as cape Blanco, and the town of Panama was founded. In 1536, Sebastian de Benalcazar, one of the officers who accompanied Pizarro in the expedition to Peru, effected the conquest and colonization of the southern internal provinces of New! Grenada; whilst Gonzalo Ximenes de Quesada, who had been sent by Lugo, the admiral of the Canaries, overran the northern districts from Santa Martha. They met with considerable opposition from the natives, but finally succeeded in reducing the country, and the whole was formed into one government, and put under a captain-general, appointed in 1547; to check, whose power the royal audience was established, of which he was, however, made president. In the year 1718, New, Grenada was formed into a vice-royalty. This form of government continued until 1724, when the captain-generalship was restored; but, in 1740, the vice-royalty was re-established. Under this system, the evils of which were of a very grievely nature, the inhabitants of New Granada

AOP III.

continued with the invasion of Spain by independence. In 1810, however, Spain until 1810, that it began to be publicly Exvewed. The juntas then chosen were composed of persons generally favorable vice royalty soon afterwards assembled, and, in 1811, a formal declaration of indeperidence was made. The country has, since that period, passed through many The cause of vicissitudes of forume. "freedom and that of the toyalists have been alternately friumphant, and many frightful seems of rapine and bloodshed . have occurred. In 1616, a decisive action was fought between the independents and a Spanish army under Morillo, which ended in the total defeat of the former, and the dispersion of the congress. remaining under the dominion of the royalists for three years, Grenada was again emancipated by the army of Bohvar, who entered Santa Fé in Aug., 1819. In Dec., 1819, a union was effected with Vertezuela into one republic.

The coast of Caracas, or Venezuela. this country was originally discovered by Columbus, in 1498, during his third voyage. Several attempts being made to 'colonize, the Spanish government came to the determination of settling the country under its own direction. These expeditions were managed by priests, and generally ill\*conducted; and it was found necessary to subdue the inhabitants by force. When this was partially effected, and the Spanish settlers were placed in some security, the proprietorship was sold, by Charles V, to the Weltsers, a German mercantile company. Under their management, the Spaniards and the natives suffered the most grievous tyranny. The abuses of their administration becoming at last intolerable, they were dispussessed," in 1550, and a supreme governor, with the title of captain-general, was appointed. From this period until the year 1806, Caracas remanded in quiet subjection to the mother country. In 1806, a gallam but unfortunate attempt was made to liberate her from the yoke. General Miranda, a mative of Caracas, formed for this purpose an expedition partly at St. Domingo and partly at New York. A landing was effected on the count, but the force proved wholly inadequate to the designed object. ' Many were taken prisoners by the Spanich buthorities, and several suffered death. The defeat was decisive, and gave an effectual blow, for the time, to the project of

the French. The desire of independence being overrun by the French troops, the had long been prevalent; but it was not opportunity was seized by the principal inhabitaints to establish a freer form of government. For this purpose, a junta suprema, or congress, was convened in independence. A congress from the Caracas, consisting of deputies from all different provinces or departments of the the provinces composing the former captain-generalship, with the exception of. Maracaibo. At first, they published their acts in the name of Ferdinand VII; but the captain-general and the members of the audiencia were deposed and imprisound, and the new government received: the utle of the confederation of Venezuela. The most violent and impolitic measures, were now adopted by the regency and cortes of Spain towards the people of this The congress, finding the voice district. of the people decided in favor of independence, issued a proclamation, on the 5th of July, 1811, formally declaring it. A liberal constitution was established, and affairs wore a tayorable aspect for the cause of freedom, until the fatal carthquake of 1812, which, operating on the superstition of the people, led to a great change in the public opinion. Monteverile, a royalist general, taking advantage of the rituation of affairs, marched against Caracas, and, after defeating general Miranda, compelled the whole province to submit. In 1813, however, Venezuela was agam emancipated by Bolivar, who was sent with an army by the confederation of Grenada. In 1814, he was, in his turn, defeated by Boves, and compelled to evacuate Caracas. In 1816, he again returned with a respectable body of troops, and was again de-Undismayed by reverses, he ' larded again, in December of the same year, convened a general congress, and defeated the royalists in March, 1817, with great loss. In the month following, however, Barcelona was taken by the Spanish troops. The contest was maintained for some time afterwards with virious success. Bolivar was invested by the congress with ample powers, the situation of the republic requiring the energy of a dictator. On the 17th of Dec., 1819, a umon between the republics of Grenada and Venezuela was solemnly decreed, in conformity with the report of a select committee of deputies from each state. This confederation received the title of the

kepublic of Colombia. In conformity with the fundamental law, the installation of the general congress of Colombia took place on the 6th of May, 1821, in the city of Rosario of Cucuta. The first subject considered by this body was the constitu-

tion; and it was finally determined than dience to the summons, placed himself at PROBABILITATION (ADMITTAL) AND tive, executive and judicial. Bolivar, the president, was, in the mean time; actively On the 24th of June, 1821, was fought the memorable battle of Carabobo, in which the royalist army was totally defeated. with the loss of their artillery, buggage, and upwards of 6000 men. In the fall of 1822, Bolivar completed, by the capture of Panama, the overthrow of Spanish power in this quarter; the only remaining memorial of which was Porto Cabello, which held out until Dec. 1823. For, by the successes of the troops sent against Quito, the Spaniards had been compelled to surrender their authority in the south. Bohvar defeated Murgeon at Curiaco, in April, 1822, and, in May, Sucre gained the splendid victory of Pichincha, immediately after which the Spanish authorities capitulated. A long course of victory having thus delivered Colombia from the Spaniards, Bohvar marched into Peru, in 1824, at the head of an army of 10,000 men, to effect the liberation of that country. Meanwhile, the acknowledgment of the independence of Colombia, by the U. States, in 1823, and, in successive years, since then, by Great Britain and the other governments of Europe, except Spani, gave new activity to her commercial relations. The government was administered, in the absence of Bohvar, by the vice-president, general Francisco de Paula Santander; rel from the adoption of the constitution until 1826, the legislative and executive 'authornes, reheved from anxiety with respect to Spain, stremously exerted themselves in various domestic improvements. The finances were placed on a more solid footing; public education was ed to the new order of things, every where arose: To all outward appearance, the republic was rapidly acquiring consistency and stability, when the insurrection of Paez, in Venezuela, produced a fatal change. Paez, being one of the most disthiguished officers of the revolution, received the command of the department of Venezuela. In the execution of a law for enrolling the militia in the city of Caracas, he gave so much offence to the inhabitants by his arbitrary conduct, that they obtained an unpeachment against him before the senate. Being notified of this, in April, 1826, and summoned to appear and take his trial, he refused obe-

the two states should form one nation, on the head of the troops and became the the central system, under a popular representative government, divided into legislar zuela, which, dissatisfied with the central system, demanded a reform of the government, some desiring that Venezuela engaged in bringing the war to a close, should again be separate from New Grenada, others wishing for a federal constitution, like that of the U. States. In com quence of this insurrection, the northeastern departments of the republic remained virtually independent of the rest, until Jan., 1827, when Bolivar returned to Colombia, and succeeded in restoring the national authority, by promising to assemble a convention for the reform of the constitution. Meanwhile, various disorders broke out in other parts of the republic, the departments formed out of New Grenada alone continuing faithful to the constitution. Congress assembled in May, and, in June, passed a decree of general amnesty, and, in August, another decree for convoking a grand convention at Ocana, for amending the constitution. Bolivar and Santander, having been reelected president and vice-president, were duly qualified, the latter in May, and the former; in Sept., 1827, and affairs remained tranquil until the convention assembled at. Ocaña, in March, 1828. 'The violence of parties, and the disturbed state of the , country, prevented the convention from effecting any thing, and it soon separated.

These events finally resulted in Bolivar's assuming absolute authority, and, in effect, abolishing the constitution of the republic. Whether he took the step solely in order to terminate the public disorders, or whether he himself, as others allege, created them by his intrigues, in order to afford a plausible pretext for his usurpation, it remains for time to show. What appears on the face of things is, that the various municipalities drew up addresses carefully fostered; and institutions, adapt-, to him, in which he was requested and invited to assume the supreme command. The earliest of these was the act of the municipality of Bogotá, dated June 13, 1828; and others followed in quick succession from every part of the country. Bolivar was not slow in obeying the call, and organized the new government by appointing a council of ministers and a council of state for its administration, with. D. Jose M. de Castillo for president of each ? council. This usurpation roused the hostility of the republican party, some of whom, unfortunately, conspired to assassinate Bolivar. The attempt was made Sept. 25, 1828, but failed, owing to the bravery of the officers and attendants

. 215 Padilla and Santander were accused of perticipating in the plot, and condemned is irrually excluded from the enjoyment to death by a special tribunal. Paddla of some of the most important civil privi-was executed under his sentence; but the leges, by the prejudices of the European punishment of Santander was commuted for banishment. The immediate agents , in the attempt were apprehended, and suffered the punishment of death. not prevent general Ovando from raising the standard of opposition in Popayan, and gathering so large a force as to demand the immediate presence of Bolivar to resof war was issued against Peru, in consenuence of difficulties between the two countries, arising out of the attempt of Bohvar to make himself perpetual president of Peru. (q. v.) These events leave Colombia in a disturbed condition, the results of which it is idle to attempt to predict. Peace was made between the two countries in 182). In October of the same year, general Cordova began an insurrection in Antioquia, which seems to be of little consequence. The troubles in Venezuela appear to be much more important. A strong wish to separate from Colombia seems to exist there. General Pacz is much beloved in Venezuela. Whether the society called amigos del pais, established by him in Caracas, has any further object than the ostensible one of promoting commerce, science and the arts, time must show. Colombia seems, at the time when we write, to be on the point of experiencing some important change in her political condition. If any such should occur before this volume is completed, it will be noticed at the end of the volume. (See the articles South America, New Grenada, Quito, Vene-zuela, Bolivar, & e.) The following works , may be consulted relative to Colonibia: Humboldt's Tubleaux de la Nature; Personal Narrative of the same; Mollien's Travels in Colombid, Paris, 1823 (trans-lated into English, 1825); Colombia, 2 vols., 8vo., London, 1822.

. Cos.os. (See Punctuation.)

Colonel; the commander of a regiment, whether of horse, foot or artillery. There were times when, in some armies of the European continent, regiments were commanded by generals; but this is no, for a suitable spot for the colony. They longer the case.

Colonial Articles. (See Commerce.) COLONIZATION SOCIETY, American. One sixth part of the population of the U. States consists of blacks. Of these, 1.852.126 are slaves (see Slavery); the re-

maining 280,000 are called free. In some about his person, among whom his aid, maining 280,000 are called free. In some colonel Furguson, was killed. Generals of the states, the free black population is oppressed by legal disabilities, and, in all. race, A caste is thus formed in the state, of individuals below the salutary influence of public opinion, cut off from all hope of This did' improving their condition; degraded, ignorant and vicious themselves, and leaving the same legacy of humiliation and shame to their children. 4 common descent and color units them, on the other At the same time, a declaration, hard, with the slaves, and render them the fit agents for formenting insurrections among them. On this account, they have become objects of suspicion and alarm in the slave-holding states; and the owners of slaves consider it impolitic and dangerous to emancipate their Negroes, since they contribute to merease the strength of a dangerous class, without deriving any unportant benefits themselves from the change. The state of things gave rise to the colonization society. So carly as the year 1777, the plan was proposed by Jefferson, in the legislature of Virginia, of emanerpating all the slaves born after that period, educating them, the males to the age of 21, the females to that of 18, and establishing colonies of them in some suitable The plan of colonization has been subsequently approved by the legislatures of nine states; but it was first carried into execution by individuals. The society was formed in 1816. "Its object is, to promote and execute a plan for colonizmg (with their consent) the free people of color residing in our country, either in Africa or such other place as congress shall deem expedient;" to prepare the way for the injerference of the government; by proving that a colony can be established and maintained without the opposition of the natives, that the colemets can be transported at a moderate expense; that an important commerce might be thus established, and the slave-trade in consequence discouraged. The practicalahty of the plan being proved, it was intended to extend it to the entire removal of the whole black population. In 1817, two agents were sent by the society to examine the western coast of Africa selected a position in the Sherbro, and, in February, 1820, the first vessel was despatched with 88 colonists. They were conducted by an agent of the society, and accompanied by two agents of the government. The expedition arrived on the

able position. It has a fine barbon the climate is pleasant, and the soil is fertile. producing sugar-care, indigo and conouwithout cultivation. In 123, the emigrants amounted to 150, of whom several were recaptured Africaus, taken from vossels seized for a violation of the laves of • the U. States. In 1828, the colony contained more than 1200 inhabitants. It has received the name of Liberia, and the town at the cape is called Monrovia, in honor of the ex-president Monroe. The possessions of the society extend 150 miles along the coast, and a considerable distance into the interior. Eight stations or settlements have been established, at the request of the native chiefs, who construct the necessary buildings for the accommodation of the colonists at their own expense. The colonists employ several hundred native laborers; and they are, in general, in very comfortable circumstances. Several schools have been established, and the moral and religious character of the inhabitants is excellent. By the constitution of Liberia, all persons both in the colony, or residing there, shall be free, and enjoy all the privileges of the citizens of the U. States; the agent of the society possesses the sovereign power; the pidiciary consists of the agent and two justices appointed by him; the other officers are chosen by the colonists. The common law is adopted, with the modifications already introduced in the U. States, and others required by the pecuhar situation of the colony. . The party coffee, are exported. The supreme control of the government is to remain in the hands of the society until the settlers are in a condition to govern themselves.-While the benevolent exertions of the soelety have been thus successful abroad, its influence on the public sentiment at home has been very salutary. The congress of the U. States had already abolished the slave-trade, in 1803, as soon as the restrictions imposed by the constitution were removed. Through the representations of the colonization society, the act of the president to make arrangements for poems appeared in 1760, at Bergamo.

· low coasts in the rainy season; the three , the support and restoration of recaptured agents, and a great number of the colo-, Negroes. May 15, 1820, the slave-trade nists, were carried off by the fever of the was declared to be piracy, and punishable climate, and it became necessary to aban. with death. The society has succeeded don the colony. In 1821, another vessel in overcoming the fears and prejudices of was sent out, with 28 colonists, and cape its former opponents; some of the most Mesurado was purchased as a more favor- terminent statesmen in the slave-holding states have become earnestly engaged in the cause; the legislatures of several of the same states have contributed fundi for its assistance; and, in 1828, the numher of auxiliary societies amounted to 96. The experiment has convinced the blacks themselves of the great benefits they must derive from their colonization, and the number of applicants for transportation has been constantly increasing. emancipation of slaves is also facilitated, now that provision is made for them. In 1828, 100 were manumitted, and, in 1829, 200 were offered to the society, on condition that they should be sent to Liberia. Information concerning the history and objects of the society may be found in its 12 Annual Reports (Washington, 1818— 1829), in the African Repository (Washington), in the North American Review. January, 1824, and January, 1825 (Boston), and in the American Quarterly Revew, No. 8, December, 1828.

Colonna, Vittoria; the most renowned poetess of Italy, daughter of Fabrizio Colonna, high-constable of Naples; sborn in 1490, at Marino, a fief belonging to the family. At the age of four years, she was destined to be the wife of Fern. Franc. d'Avalos, marquis of Pescara, a boy of the same age. The rare excellences, both of body and mind, with which nature and a most careful education had adorned her. made her an object of universal admiration, so that even princes sued for her hand. But, faithful to her vow, she gave her hand to the companion of her youth, m any action at law is entitled to trial by who had become one of the most distinpary. The commerce of the place is in-s guished men of his age. They lived in ereasing. Rice, palm-oil, wax, and some the happiest union. When her husband coffee, are exported. The supreme confeel, in the battle of Pavia (1525), Vittoria sought consolation in solitude and in poetry. All het poems were devoted to the memory of her husband. She lived seven years, by turns at Naples and at Ischia, and afterwards retired into a monastery, first at Orvieto, and finally at Viterbo. She afterwards abandoned the monastic life, and made Rome her abode, where she died in 1547. Her Rine are not inferior to the best imutations of Petrarch. The finest are her Rime Spirituali (Venice, 1548, 4tot), which display deep weling March 3, 1819, was passed, authorizing and pure piety. A collection of all her

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330

Corons. Before America and the way by sed to the East Judies were discovered, the states of Europe, in the middle ages, with the exception of the Genoese and of 3 the Venetians, had no foreign colonies. The Mediterranean afforded a passage to an extensive commerce, which was chiefly carried on by the small Italian states, parcicularly Venice and Genoa, and the seaports of Cataloina. The commerce between India and the continents of Europe and Asia was carried on chiefly by way of Ormus and Aden, on the Persian and Amban gulist Aleppo, Damascus, and the harbor of Barut, and especially Egypt, were the chief emporiums. 'Aong as commerce was confined to landcarriage, and conducted by small states, it never could have the importance which it assumed in the hands of the Spaniards and Portuguèse, after America was discovered, and the passage by sea to the East Indies effected. When the Portuguese nation first commenced as discoveries, it was in the vigor of its heroic age. By continual wars with the Moors, first in Europe and afterwards in Africa, the martial spirit of the nation acquired that chivalrous energy which impelled it to · romantic enterprises, particularly as the most violent hatred against the infidels was connected with it. From 1410, when Henry the Navigator (q. v.) commenced his voyages and discoveries on the western shore of Africa, till his death, nr 1463, the Portuguese discovered, in 1419, Mam 1439, cape Bojador; m 1446, cape Verd : two years later, the Azores ; in 1449, the cape Verd isles, and penetrated to Sierra Leone. In 1484, Congo was visited. Bartolomeo Daz reached (1486) the cape of Tempests, which king John called the cape of Good Hope. Soon af-terwards, under the reign of king Emanuel the Great, a daring adventurer led the . Portuguese by that route to the East Indies. Vasco da Gama landed, Way 20, 1498, at Calicut, on the coast of Malabar. The Portuguese did not succeed without a struggle particularly with the Moors, who had previously been in possession of the inland trade of India, in establishing settlements on the coast of Malabar, and **nothing** but the lofty spirit and the determined valor of the first viceroy, the great Almeida of Abrantes (1505-9), and of his still greater succeisor, Alphonso Albuquerque (1515), could have founded, with such feeble means, an extensive dominion in India; the chief seat of which, from 1508, was Goa. The Portuguese garrisoned only some strong places along the

Brown Maria Commence of the district course of the continent and the islands, as commercial posts, among which, on the coast of Africa, Mozambique, Sofala and Melinda; in the Persian gult, Ormus and Mascat; on the Malabar coast, besides Goa, Din and Daman; on the Coromandel coast, Negapatun and Meliapoor (St. Thomas), and Malacca on the peninsula of the same name, were the most important, . After the year 1511, colonies were established also upon the Spice islands; after 1518, in Ceylon; the latter of which soon became considerable. Those in Java, Sumatra, Celebes and Borneo renamed less important. Brazil, though discovered in 1500, by Cabral, did not become of consequence until more recently. On the other ' hand, the commercial connexions formed. m 1517, with China, and, in 1542, with Japan, were, for a long time, a source of riches to the Portuguese. Till that time. the Portuguese had been in the undisputed possession of all the East Indian cominerce. In order to prevent difficulties: with Spain, all the discoveries which should be made beyond cape Bojador were adjudged, in 148f, by a papal bull of Sixtus IV, to the Portuguese. A dispute with Spain concerning the possession of the Molnecas was adjusted, m 1529, by an agreement that Charles V should sell his claims, for 350,000 ducats, to the crown of Portugal. But, after Plulp II, in 1580, had made himself master of Portugal, the East Indian colomes also fell under the domanton of the Spanands, and, soon after, into the power of the Dutch. The ability of some great men, and the heroic spirit of the nation. had founded the power of Portugal in the East Indies. It fell when the character of the people degenerated, when a low traing spirit took the place of hero-1310, even among the higher classes of the aration; when avariee, luxury and effenunacy increased, and the influence of the clergy, and particularly of the inquisition, To these chises became predominant. of decline were added the annexation of Portugal to Spain, and the neglect of the Portuguese colonies, resulting from this upon. Moreover, all the enemies of Spain, particularly the Dutch, were now also enemies of Portugul, and the fabric of Portuguese greatness in the East Indies could not be prevented from hastening to rain. Portugal never carried on commerce with the East Indies by means of a privileged society, but by fleets which started every year, in February or March, for India, under the protection of the government. The coasting trade in India,

ed to monopolize; but they contented themselves with carrying goods to Lisbon, without attempting to export them to the rest of Europe. The dissidvantages of this system were soon felt by their marine, particularly as it allowed the Dutch to become dangerous rivals. From this time, the Portuguese maintained a place among the important colonial powers of Europe only by the possession of Brazil. It was fortunate, as regarded the colonization of this country, that its gold mines were not discovered till 1698, its wealth in dia- • monds not until 1728, and that its trade was not monopolized by two companies till the time of Pombal.

At about the same time as the Portuguese, the Spaniards also became a colomal power. October 11, 1492, Columbus discovered the island of San Salvador, and, in his three following voyages, the group of the West India islands, and a part of the American continent. St. Domingo or Hispaniola became of great unportance to Spain, on account of its gold mines. Attempts were also made to colomze Cuba, Porto Rico and Jamaica, from . 1508 to 1510. The great kingdom of Mexico was subjected by Cortex 1519-1521; Peru, Chile and Qiuto, 1529—1535, by Pizarro and his followers: nº 1523, Terra Firma, and 1536, New Grenada, were conquered. The nature of the countries of which the Spaniards took possession, decided, from the first, the character of their colonics which afterwards continued unchanged in the main. They did not produce the various precious articles of the East Indies, instead of which the Spaniards found gold and silver, the great objects of their desire. While, therefore, the colonies of the Portuguese in Last India were, from the beginning, commercial, those of the Spaypards in America were always mining colonies. It was not till later times that they received some modifications of this character. To maintain their extensive dominion, particularly over the wild nations of the interior, the Spaniards endeav-Tored to convert the Indians to Christianity by the establishment of missions, and to induce them to live in permanent abodes, The government of the colonies, in its fundamental traits, was settled in 1532, during the reign of Charles V: A council of the Indies in Europe, viceroys, at first two, afterwards four, together with eight independent captains-general, in America, were the heads of the admin-

which was confined to a few scaports, the stration. The west distincts was the Portuguese, in very early times, endeavorral. Cities were founded, at first along the coasts, for the sake of commerce and as military posts; afterwards also in the interior, in pasticular in the vicinity of the mines; as Vera Cruz, Cumana, Porto Bello, Carthagena, Valencia, Caracas; Acapulco and Panama, on the coast of the Pacific: Lima, Concepcion and Buenos Ayres. The whole ecclesiastical discipline of the mother country was transferred to the colonies, except that, in the latter, the church was much more independent of the king. The precious metals were the chief article of export from the colonies, and the commerce in them was subjected to very rigorous inspection. The intercourse with Spain was confined to the single port of Seville, from which two squadrons started annually-the galleons, about 12 in number, for Porto Bello, and the fleet, of 15 large vessels, for Vera Cruz. While, therefore, the commerce was not expressly granted, by law, to a society, it remained, nevertheless, entirely up the hands of a few individuals. Spain had taken possession of the Philippfile isles in 1564, and a regular intercourse was maintained, from 1572, by the South sea galleons, between Acapulco and Manilla; but, owing to the great restrictions on comperce, those i-land-, notwithstanding their advantageous situation, were an expense to the crown, instead of being profitable to it: religious considerations alone prevented them from being abandoned.

Far greater activity and political importance were communicated to the colonial commerce of Europe, when two commercial nations, in the full sense of the word,-the Dutch and the English,-engaged in it. The Dutch, during the struggle for their independence, first became the formidable rivals of the Portuguese, then subjected to the Spanish yoke. The participation of the Dutch in the colonial system imparted to the colonial commerce a new impulse and a far greater extent. They had already, for some time, carried on the trade in East India merchandise between Lisbon and the rest of Europe, and had seen, during the struggle for their independence, the weakness of the Spanish naval force. The tyranny of Philip II forced them to a measure which they would not readily have adopted from . choice, that of fighting their enemies in the East Indies. The intercourse of the Dutch with Lisbon had already been prohibited by Philip in 1584; the prohibition

was revived, in 1594, with the utmost severity, and a number of Dutch vessels in the harbor were scized. Excluded from all trade in the productions of India, they had no alternative left, but to resign this Aranch of commerce entirely, or to import .directly from India the articles which were refused to them in Europe. En-"couraged by Cornelius Houtmann, a welltunsuccessful attempts to find a northern :passage to the East Indies, the "company of remote parts," composed of merchants of Amsterdam and Antwerp, equipped , four vessels, which set sail for the East Indies. April 2, 1595, under the command of Houtmann and Molenger. Though the profits of the first expedition were not so great as had been expected, the weakness and unpopularity of the Portuguese, who were universally hated in India, were discovered, and similar companies were soon formed, which sent fleets to this rich region. The number of competitors in India was thus mamoderately increased, and the continued hostility of the united Spanish and Pertuguese power induced the states-general, not many years afterwards, to unite the separate societies into one, called the Dutch Bast India company, which, by a charter granted March 20, 1602, and renewed atterwards at different times, received not only the monopoly of the East India trade, but also sovereign powers over the conquests which they should make and the colonies which they should establish in India. The supermendence which the states-general retained for themselves was little more than normual. The coloural system of the Dutch in the East Indies was rapidly developed, and early received the decided character which it has ever since retained. Their colonies in the East Indies became commercial colonics, and the Moniceas and the great Sunda isles, being more easily defended than the continent of India, which was then subjected to powerful rulers, became the principal seat of their power. This was undoubtedly the chief cause of their continuing so long in a flourishing condition, as they required only the dominion of the sea to maintain them. In 1618, the newly-built Batavia was anade, by the governor-general Koen, the capital of the Dutch posprived the Portuguese of all their East Indian territories, not, indeed, without resistence, but with little difficulty; and, in 1611, they found means to become exclusive masters of the trade to Japan. Thus

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cost se. the Portuguese retained but a few insignificant possessions in Goa, the melancholy remains of their former grandeur About the middle of the 17th century, the power of the Dutch reached its highest point; particularly after they had effected the establishment of a colony at the cape of Good Hope (which, in 1653, afforded an excellent bulwark for their East Indian informed man, who had made several possessions), and had taken Ceylon from the Portuguese in 1658. All the Dutch colonies in the East Indies were under the governor-general of Batavia, to whom u ere aubordinate several governments, directories, commanderies and residences, the titles and number of which varied with the importance of the different colonies at different times. In Europe, the colonial administration was conducted by a council of ten Bewindhebbers, who were chosen from a body of 60 directors. In 1621, the Dutch established also a West India company which, at first, made extensive conquests in Brazil (1630-1640), but lost them again in 1642. Their settletuents on some of the smaller West India islands, as San Enstatia, Curação, Saba and St. Martin (1632-49), were more permanent, and were particularly important on account of the snuggling trade there carried on. On the continent, only Sannam, Paramaribo, E-sequibo and Berbice were in the hands of the Dutch in 1667.

> Nearly at the same time with the Dutch, the English made their appearance as a colonial power, at first with far inferior success. They first visited remote seaduring the reight of queen Elizabeth. After many fruit se attempts to find a north east or north-west passage to the East Indies, English vessels found their way round the cape of Good Hope to the Last InCe- m 1594 Dec. 31, 1600, Ehzabeth ranted a charter to a society instituted for the purpose of entrying on an exclusive trade beyond the cape and the straits of Magellan. Their commerce with India, however, was not, at first, important. They established only single factories on the con-The island of St. Helena, which tment. was taken possession of by them in 1601, was almost their only permanent possession in that quarter of the world. During the reign of Charles I, in 1623, the English East India company was driven from the Spice islands by the Dutch, and retained, kesades fort St. George, built ut 1620, at Madras, only some factories on the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel. From 1653 to 1658, the company seemed to be entirely dissolved, until it was revived and supported against the Dutch .

possessions of the English in India were limited almost entirely to Madras, Calcutta and Bencoolen, and the vast British empure there dates only from the middle of the 18th century. The ruin of the Mogul of British power, as the English and French interfered in the contentions of the native princes and governors. The French, under Labourdonnaye and Dupleix, appeared, at first, to maintain the superiority; but the English succeeded, after driving both of them from India, in acquiring the ascendency in the Carnatic, and, in the middle of the last century, extended their donumion, under the command of Laurence and Chve. (q. v.) By the destruction of Pondicherry, they secured their superiority on the coast of Coromandel; and the victory of Clive at Plassey, June 26, 1756, laid the foundation of their exclusive sovereignty in India. By the treaty of Allahabad, Aug. 12, 1765, Bengal was surrendered to the English by the timlar great Mogul, and the nabob of the country retained but a shadow of dominion. The fall of the empire of Mysore The dominions of Hyder Ah and Tippoo Saib) may be considered as completely establishing the exclusive sovereignty of the British in India. The Mahrattas, with whom the English first waged war m 1774, remained the only forundable The British enemies of the company. territory in India was now of an extraordinary extent, including the whole east-',em'shore, the greater part of the western, and all the countries on the Ganges and Junna to Delhi. (For the recent changes in the English and Dutch East Indies, see India and East India Companies.) Almost on the same time with the first attempts of the English to participate in the East Indian commerce, the London and Plymouth companies were established (1606) by James I: the former for the southern, the latter for the northern half, of the North American coast; and, in the same; year, Jamestown, on Chesapeake bay, was founded. The colomes in a country which possessed neither gold nor other

by Cromwell. But, during the raign of productions of nation by art particularly Charles II, it again fell into decay, chiefly by its own fauk. A new Fast India company, with a charter from the crown, was domestic disturbances in England, which formed in 1698, and the union of both in caused much emigration, the North American at the control of the c 1708, as it then seemed, alone saved the ican colonies greatly increased; separate East Indian trade from total ruin. The colonies were formed, and, after the dissolution of the London company in 1625. and of the Plymouth company in 1637, received constitutions containing many republican principles. In later times arose the English establishments in the West internal disturbances after the death of Aureng-Zebe (1707), and was completed many smaller islands. Yet the West India islands, including Barbadoes, half of St. Christopher's (1625), and, soon after, afforded the opportunity for the many smaller islands. Yet the West India possessions did not have the complete of the opportunity for the many smaller islands. introduced into Barbadoes (1641) and into. Jamaica in 1660. This island had been taken from the Spaniards in 1655. The British colonies in North America prospered much more than those in the West Indies, even after the cultivation of roffee had been introduced into the latter in 1732. In the same year, Georgia, the youngest of the thirteen provinces, was founded. Newfoundland (in French," Terre-neuve) also became important for ; its cod-fisheries, and Canada was surrendered to England at the peace of Paris, m 1763. In 1764 began the dispute between England and its North American colonies, on the question, whether the former had the right to impose taxes on the colonies when they were not represented in the British parhament; and, April 19, 1775, commenced the war, in which the Americans were assisted by France, and which terminated with the acknowledgment of the independence of the thirteen provinces. By the peace of Paris (1783), the first independent state in the new world. was recognised in Europe. The power of England was not broken by this event; its commerce with the new republic increased rapidly. Canada and Nova Scotia were now of the greatest importance to it; and the British West India islands rose in proportion as the restrictions on commerce diminished. But the free states of North America advanced with giant strides; their number has increased from 13 to 24, and their flag v aves over every sea. The West India e Jonies, however, were untavorably affected by the extension of the cultivation of productions pre-viously peculiar to them. The slave-trade was also abolished (1806).

France acquired colonies later than the Dutch and English. Her colonies, and what, at first, was mought indespensable. for them, commercial companies, were

the work of Colbert. He purchased, on the French had been successful since devered. West Indian islands, as Martin-1751; but the peace of 1763 deprived ique, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, Granada, and them of their conquests, and the East pubers, settlements already formed by pri- India company was dissolved in 1769. vate persons (1664), and, in the same year, pent colonists to Cayenne. But the settle-Affiratical state of the Buccaneers became, bon alone, they have maintained a doubt-the most important. The West India ful influence upon the commerce of the becompany, creeted likewise in 1664, sur-Wised only 10 years. Sugar and cotton, and, since 1723, coffee (first introduced into Martinique), have been the most inportant productions of the West Indian colonies, which, by the great commercial privileges granted them in 1717, and by the snuggling trade with Spanish America, soon obtained the ascendency over the English. Though France, by the terms of the peace of Paris (1763), lost some of its smaller islands, it was indemnified by the riches of St. Domingo, which furnished, in the years preceding the revolution, an annual gross revenue of 170,000,000 livres—almost as much as all the rest of the West Indies together. 1791 and the succeeding years, St. Domingo suffered terribly, but it has risen again under an entirely new form. (See Hayti.) In 1661, France possessed Canada, Acadia or Nova Scotia, on the continent, and the island of Newfoundland. These colonies, however, made but slow progress. The last was ceded to England by the treaty of Utreight (1713); the two, first, with Cape Breton in 1763. Louisiana, declining in prosperity, was given up to Spain (1764), and Cayenne could ill atone for these losses. Louisiana was afterwards restored to France, but sold by her, in 1803, to the U./States of North America. The French'did not meet with much better success in their attempts to establish themselves in the East Indies. In 1664, Colbert founded an East India company. After frafitless attempts to form a colony in Madagdsear, Pondicherry was founded on the coust of Coromandel in 1670, and soon became the cluef seat of 'the French East Indies. But the company fell into decay. In 1719, it was united with the dississippi company, but 'still remained feeble. On the other hand, the French took possession of Isle de Trance and Bourton, in 1720, which had heen abandoned by the Dutch, and which attained a flourishing condition under the sadministration of Labourdonnave (commencing in 1736), by the cultivation of coffee, whilst Dupleix. is governor-general of Pondicherry, had the direction of affairs n the East Indies. Here the arms of

The French now possess only Karicai and the demolished town of Pondicherry. ments, on a part of St. Domingo by the By the possession of the island of Bour-

East Indies.
The Danes and Swedes have likewise had colonies; and there was a time when even Austria endeavored to partake in the colonial commerce. An East India company was formed in Denmark, in 1618, in the reign of Christian IV, which acquired Tranquebar from the rajah of Tanjore, but was dissolved in 1634. The second company, formed in 1670, which . survived till 1729, was not more fortunate. In 1671, the Danes also occupied the West India island of St. Thomas, to which were added, in the first half of the 18th century, St. John and Santa Cruz, which they purchased from France. In 1734, a West India company was established; but, on its dissolution (1764), the commerce with the West Indies was made free to every one, and the islands there improved rapidly. The East India commerce, for which a company had been instituted in 1732, was also very literative But the company traded chiefly with China, and ceded their settlements in the East Indies to the crown in 1777.—Sweden, though it had no possessions in India, established an East India company, m 1731, in order to engage directly in the tea trade with China, which it carried on with much success. In 1784, by the acquisition of the small Island of St. Bartholomew from France, it gained a firm footing in the West Indies.—Austria wa-Under the reign of less successful. Charles VI, she attempted to engage in the direct commerce with the East Indies by establishing the company of Ostend (1722), but was obliged, by the violent opposition of England and Holland, to dissolve the company in 1731. An attempted settlement, in the last quarter of the 18th century, on the Nicobar islands, in the Indian ocean, which were occupied; • in earlier times, by the Danes, but abandoned on account of the unbealthiness of the situation, was equally unsuccessful.

A company was first established in Russia, m 1787, for obtaining furs on the ·Kurile isles, the Alcutian isles, and the north-west coast of North America. ukase, in favor of this company, forbidding other nations to trade and fish on the

coasts of Asia and North America, from 51° N. lat. on the American side, and the S. cape of the island of Urup on the Asiatic, together with the intermediate islands. met with opposition from the U. States; but, by a treaty concluded at St. Peters-burg, April 17, 1824, it was agreed that the people of both governments should be allowed to trade or fish unmolested in any part of the Parific ocean or its coasts. was also agreed that no establishment should be formed on the north-west coast to the north of 54° by citizens of the U. States, nor to the south of the same point\_ by Russian subjects.

While the slave-trade was unobstructed,, Africa was of much importance in respect to the colonial interests of Europe. African establishments are mostly single fortified factories along the coasts of Af-Their chief object was the slavbtrade, which was chiefly carried on by privileged companies. A free Negro colony was founded at Sierra Leone, by the English (1786), and the abolition of the slave-trude (q. %), which originated with Denmark and England (1802 and 1806), must necessarily affect the African settlements.—The discovery of Australasia led, in 1788, to the settlement at Sydney cove, m New South Wales, and those in Van Diemen's land (q. v.), which soon became flourishing colomes. (See .N. S. Wales.)

The commerce of the world (see Commerce) received a powerful unpulse from the colonies, and the nations soon perceived that these consumed one of the cinef sources of then wealth. It is, however, not to be denied, that the illusions of the mercantile , system, so called, and, still more, the great wealth which some colomal powers acquired, and which was attributed exclusively to their colonial trade, caused an exaggerated value to be affixed to this commerce, without sufficient regard to the particular character and genus of the different nations, heir geographical and political situation, ind the circumstances of the time. ler the influence of this misapprehenion, each state endeavored to exclude all rangers from participating in it; and a aw of nations was formed, with regard to pe colonies, which was distinguished from e common European law of nations by ungenerous principles. Thus the Poriguese and Spaniards endeavored to exhde all other European nations from navlating the seas on which their colonies ere situated, and to maintain this as-imption by force. But neither Spain nor

time, their craggerated pretensions, against which England, and Holland, declared themselves very carly. No somer, however, had the two last come into possession. of the colonial trade, than they announced, if not the same, yet not much nobler prin-ciples. Though it was acknowledged, in general, that the Indian seas were not the exclusive property of any power, yet the new proprietors endeavored to secure the. exclusive dominion of some large branches of the sea, not only by treaties, but also by acts of violence and oppression, even in the midst of peace. The principle was adopted, in general, that each European nation should be excluded from compacree with the colonies of every other, and not unfrequently foreigners were forbidden even to land. Great Britain first declared; the colonial trade free, in 1822, and the Netherlands seem inclined to follow this; example. The colonial trade is divided. into three principal classes; the mutual trade between the different countries of those distant regions; the mutual commerce between Europe and the colonies, and the trade in colonial articles in Europe. The mutual trade between thoseregions where the colonies are situated, which, in the East Indies, before the arrival of the Portuguese, was almost exclusively in the hands of the Arabians or Moors, the Europeans early sought to appropriate; yet they did not succeed in making themselves so entirely masters of it, as to exclude other nations, in later times, chiefly the Chinese and Hindoos, from taking a considerable share in it. As little did. the trade in colonial articles in Europe remain the exclusive property of one nation, though the nation which had brought the goods from the countries where they were produced, had many advantages over others, which were obliged to purchase from it. With the exception of the Spaniards and the Portuguese, who have mostly sold in their own ports the productions which they had brought from their colonies, the nations of Europe have endeavored to be themselves the exclusive carriers of the productions of their colonies to the different ports of the European continent. But it was chiefly the intermediate trade between Europe and the colonies, which every nation reserved to itself, to the exclusion of all foreigners. This was the universal practice, even in time of peace, and was retained also in time of war, as long as no European power was master of the sea; that is, till the middle of the lastmption by force. But neither Spain nor century. At that time, the English navy, ortugal was able to maintain, for a long attained such a decided superiority, that,

during the ware between England and remonstrated vehemently against the rule commerce with its colonies. The French, therefore, adopted a policy, usually practised by them, and the other less powerful colonial powers, in their future wars with England, viz.; to declare the trade of the colonies free to all friendly and neutral vestheir colonies, which could not well do without their supplies, but saved at least a part of the profits of the colonial trade; for the neutrals were mere agents in the comthe rolonies, and the former lost only the freight of the merchandise transported. . This commerce being interrupted by England, which has always refused to acknowledge the principle "free ships make tirce goods," the neutrals began to purchase the goods of the colonies, with which they were allowed to trade, and to carry them off as their own property. The English, on the other hand, maintained that this was, in most cases, only a fictitious sale, and that the neutrals were, in one case as well as in the other, only the curriers for the belligerents. This was, no doubt, the fact in most cases; when, for instance, great purchases were made for places and countries where there could be no market for such a quantity of colonial articles; or when some commercial houses, entirely unknown before, suddenly had immense dealings in colonial articles, which they could not possibly pay for. As England maintained, besides, that every precaution which could be taken against this fraudulent trade was made ineffectual by the artifices of the neutrals, she laid down a principle, which, under the name of the rule of war of 1756, has made one of the chief points of contest between her and the nontrals. The English asserted that this trade, as it was not allowed to the neutrals in times of peace, must be considered as the property of the enemy; must be, like any other thing which he possesses, the subject of contest, and belong to the victor; that the neutrals had not the right to profit by the permission to carry on this trade, which they had obtained from the enemy only through his necessities, any more than they would be entitled to take under their protection any establishment of the enemy which was critically situated. The neurals, they said, had less reason to comwith the colonies of the enemy was not permitted in times of peace: Among the neutrals, the U. States, in particular, have.

Ritting the latter dared not continue the of war of 1756; while England, on the other hand; complained not less bitterly of injuries received from the North Ameri-" cans. It was not enough that the colonies should be cut off from all intercourse with. foreigners: commercial realousy and the mercantile system have given rise to a number of other restrictions, very disadvantageous to their prosperity, and by which their trade with the mother countries has been greatly limited. The policy of ' the mother countries was, to keep the colomerce between the mother country and, niesin the greatest commercial, as well as political, dependence. The chief measure taken for this purpose was, the establishment of companies, to which the trade between the mother countries and the colonies was committed exclusively. The government of these companies was politically as oppressive for the colonies as their exclusive right to the colonial commerce was burdensome to their trade. The productions of the mother country, which they sent to the colonies, were usually of inferior quality, and charged at very high prices, in consequence of which the colonies themselves produced less. For the mother country, the companies fixed arbitrary prices on the colonial articles; but the companies themselves, in general, gained nothing. Their officers were the only party benefited, as unavoidable frauds of every kind ruined the companies sooner or later. Though the English East India company may seem to form an exception, yet it is well known, that, more than once, it has been saved from immediate ruin only by extraordinary circumstances and support. Such compamer have been represented as necessary for carrying on commerce to advantage in fereign countries, particularly in the East ludies. The general ignorance of thesenstoms and manners of those parts, the disanages of too great a competition, and finally, the dangers attending intercourse with princes and nations of predatory hab its, have been brought, forward as arguments to prove that such a trade cannot be carried on by individuals. It was not considered that ignorance of habits and customs, and the dangers of interfering with each other's market, exist in other branche of commerce, which nobody ever though of managing by companies; and that the hosplity of the princes and tribes in suc countries is generally excited by the compumes themselves; as the servant of power loorporation behaves, in generation with more violence and haughtiness the the single, descuçciese merchant, w

cannot count on the protection of an armned power. That companies are not neces, where standing the companies are not neces, where standing the companies are not neces, who is not considered in South America already referred to and Portuguese, who knew of no such institutions in their flourishing periods. (See South America already referred to institutions in their flourishing periods. Instead of considering the companies as nies, the object of which is the production of certain plents which generally grown. the cause of the flourishing state of the East India trade, we ought rather to be astonished that, notwithstanding the companies, this commerce has prospered so much. The rapid success of the Durch East India company, in particular, was a spur to similar institutions, which were not attended with equal success. Besides the companies, there were other restrictions on the colonial trade. Every subject, for instance, was forbidden to sail for the colomes in the service of a foreign power, or without the permission of a company, which possessed the monopoly of their trade. The trade was also usually confined to a few ports, to a certain number of vessels, and to certain times. More liberal principles have been adopted only in recent times. The exclusive privileges have been limited, and the unprivileged, as, for instance, in England, have been permitted to partake in the colonial trade. \*In general, greater freedom has been allowed to this trade. In the government of the colonies, the same principle of keeping them in a state of dependence was maintained. Their trade and government were always in the closest connexion, though in different degrees in different colonies.—Colonies, in general, may be divided, according to their nature, into four large classes, viz., gricultural, mining, planting, and commercial colonies. In the first, to which belong chiefly the colonies in North America, agriculture is the chief object. The Europeans who settled there became landed proprietors, and seldom returned to their native country. In the second and third generation, the more the ties of affinity and other connexions with the, nother country disappear, and the recorrections of it vanish, the colonists form more and more a distinct nation, and become more and more estranged from their native country. Hence, as experience has shown, the possession of such colonies is insecure as soon as the population mereases, and the inhabitants come more into contact with each other. The mining colonies, the chief object of which is the acquisition of precious stones and metals, are nearly in the same condition; as, for instance, the settlements of the Spaniards and Portuguese in South America. They are, from their nature, easily converted into ag-VOL. TH.

of certain plants, which generally graw only in a hot climate, as, for instance, the settlements, in the West India islands. Here a nation is not easily formed. Europeans are the proprietors of the planta-tions; but their number is small; besides, they seldom become domesticated there, but, on account of the unhealthy climate, and the inconveniences attending the manner of living there, either administer their plantations by a steward, spending their revenues abroad, or remain in the, colonies only until they have collected a fortune, when they return to their native country. The small number of planters (for the far greater part of the population consists of Negro slaves, who are used exclusively for the cultivation of the plantations) is the cause that establishments of this kind are least able to dispense with tile protection and support of the mother country. Similarly situated are the commercial colonies, which are intended to dispose of the natural or artificial productions of the country. They grow up from single factories and commercial stations, which, by fraud and force, successively make themselves the centres of considerable territories. The possession of landed property in them is only a means for the promotion of commerce. The Europeans, in colonies of this kind, are the rulers, but seldom landed proprietors; they are mostly soldiers, officers and merchants, For this reason, a nation is not easily formed in them, as the Europeans residing, there metely wish to make a fortune and return to their native country. On account of the entire separation of the military forces in the three principal governments of British India, the influence of the civil residents over the troops stationed in the states of the allies of the East India company, the mixture of the royal troops with those of the company, the great influence of the royal forces in Ceylon, and the frequent changes of the garrisons, a military revolution is not much to be feared in British The hardest fate which the in-India. habitants of commercial colonies can suffer, is to fall into the hands of commercial companies which form, at the same time, sovereign political bodies. The abused and mismanagements of the companies

have obliged the governments of the mother countries to bring them more or y less under their own immediate superin-. The governments of agricultural, mining and planting colonies are usually of a different character. In them, it is not merely conquered tribes which are to be ruled, but principally Europeans them-selves, who have settled in them, former inhabitants of the mother country, and therefore to be treated with far greater · delicacy. The government of the mother country has usually taken care of the administration of these colonies itself; and; where they have been managed by companies, the colonies have had, at least, some part in the government: several of them have emoyed an almost republican constitution. After the abolition of the slave-trade, a fifth class of colonies was tormed on the African coast-colonics for the civilization of freed slaves—approaching most nearly to the nature of agricul-tural colonies. The most important is at Sierra Leone (q. v.), under British authority. It will become an important military and commercial post, as its connexion with the interior of Africa increases. A similar colony, called *Libenia*, was founded at cape Mesurado, on the coast of Guinea, in 1817, by the people of the U. States. · See Liberia and Colonization Society. — Very recently, a colony of colored persons has been commenced in Canada. In June, 1820, the authorities of Cincinnati (Ohio) ordered the black and mulatto persons to give security for their good behavior, or to Teave the place? This description of persons in that town amounted to about 2000, many of whom decided to settle in · Canada. They purchased 124,000 acres of land; and the colony is said to contain, 'at the time we are writing, 1100 persons. . If, as it is expected, the English govern ment should give them a grant of band large enough to support a considerable -population, this colony may, in many respects, become important to the U. States, and will probably increase fast.

Colonies, Pauer. The public attention has, of lafe, been directed to some novel and very interesting establishments in Holland, which have acquired the name of pauper colonies. The object of these institutions is to remove those persons who are a burden to society to the poorest waste lands, where, under judicious regulations, they may be enabled to provide for their own subsistence. The best account that we have seen of these establishments has been published by Mr. Ja-

cob, the English reporter on the corn trade. As the subject is so interesting and novel, a detailed account we hope, will be agreeable. Of the pauper colonies, the one which Mr. Jacob selects for illustration is that of Frederics Oord. The originator of this scheme was general van den Bosch. The general, while in the island of Java, had formed a connexion with a Chinese mandarin, whose skill in farming he had admired, and who had under him a colony of emigrant Chinese. On his return to Europe, he laid before tho, king of the Netherlands a plan for a pauper establishment, which met with the royal patronage! A public meeting was held at the Hague in 1818, and a "society of beneficence" formed, and two committees organized for its management. The president was prince Frederic, the second son of the king. Having received the sanction of the king, the society was recommended to all the local authorities, and soon found itself in possession of \$25,000, obtained from more than 20,000 members. With these finds the society purchased an estate on the east side of the Znyder Zee, and not far from the town of Steenwyk. This estate cost them \$21,700, and contained from 1200 to 1300 acres, about 200 of which was under a sort of culture, or covered with bad wood, and the rest a mere heath. They let the cultivated land, about 10 of the whole; deepened the Aa (which runs through the estate), so that it is navigable for boats, and built store-houses, a school, and dwellings for about 52 families, of from 6 to 8 persons each. Their opera-tions were begun in September, 1818; by the 10th of November the houses were ready: and the communes sent some poor familier. The total expense of each famny was as follows :--

Building each house,	\$ cts 191 17
Furniture and implements,	38 83
Clothing.	58-25
Two cows, or one cow and ten sheep,	38 25
Cultivation and seed, first year,	155 34
Advances in provisions,	19 41
Advances of other kinds,	19 41
Flav and wool to be spun,	77 67
Seven acres uncultivated land, net,	38 83
Total establishment,	8660 16

This estimate is about 105 dollars for each individual, and they are expected to repay at to the society in rent and labor, besides maintaining themselves, in about 16 years. Each allotment of 7 acres is laid out in a rectangle, having the house with one end toward the road, and the other reaching 50 Net into the allotment.

The dwelling occupies the part next the to subsist, to pay the rent and to save 3. 1. 1. 1. road; then comes the barn, after that the something, it is necessary that very assid-stalls for the cattle, and behind these the uous manuring be persevered in. The reservoir for manure, in which every particle of vegetable and animal refuse is carefully made up into compost, with the heath and moss of the land; the preparation of this compost being one of the most essential of their labors. The colonists are subjected to a kind of military regulation, all their work being done by the piece. They assemble at six in the morning, in summer and winter, and those who do not answer to their names at the roll-call get no wages for the day. When the labor of the day is over, each receives a ticket stating the amount of wages; and for that he may procure food from the store at fixed rates. Those who are at first unable to support themselves obtain credit for a short period. The women spin, weave and knit, at first from purchased wool and flax, but as soon as possible from the produce of their own flocks A day and a half's work and fields. every week is allowed for the support of the sick, the infirm, and those who are not fit for labor; and for this, those who work are allowed one shilling per day in summer, and eight pence in the winter. The whole of the necessaries and appointments are regularly inspected with nuhtary care, and such as have been wasteful are obliged to make good what they have destroved. It will be borne in mind, that the whole stock out of which each family of 6 or 8 persons is to find support, and, if they can, effect some savings, is the stock of 660 dollars, and the 7 acres of waste and, which is of a description not the most susceptible of cultivation. The careful proparation of manure, the most remarkable feature in Chinese husbandry, is the grand resource; and the result is most, encouraging, as an example of how much regularity and perseverance may effect with small means. As the preparation of manure is still very imperfectly understood in this country, and as many families throw away what constitutes, with these colonies, the elements of prosperity, we give some details from Mr. Jacob's book, the utility of which must compensate for their homeliness. When the house and barn are built, the soil formed, by mixing sand and clay to a consistence which makes it sufficiently retentive of moisture, the land manured, dug, and one crop sowed or planted on it, then a family, consisting of from 6 to 8 persons, is fixed. on it at an expense, as before stated, of 660 dollars. To enable this household

directors, therefore, require, and, by their enforcement of the prescribed regulations, indeed, compel each family to provide sufficient manure to dress the whole of the land every year. For this purpose, each household must provide itself with 300 fodder of manure yearly; or, in Eng. " glish terms, 150 tons, or at the rate of more than 20 tons to each acre. When it is considered that few of the best Eng-Esh farmers can apply one half that quan-\*tity of manure, it will not appear wonderful that 7 acres should be made to provide for the sustenance of the same number of persons, and leave a surplus to pay rent and to form a reserve of savings. On; each farm, the live stock of 2 cows, or 1 cow and 10 sheep, to which may be added pigs, would not nearly enable the cultivator to mahure his small portion of land once even in 4 or 5 years. It hence becomes necessary to form masses of compost, the collecting the materials for which forms the greater part of the em-ployment of the colonists. These masses are created almost wholly by manual la-. bor, of that kind which, but for such an application of r, would be wholly lost to the community. As straw is, at best, it. the early period, not abundant and as that from the corn must, at first, be chiefly used as food for the cattle or for covering to the houses, other materials, which the heaths furnish, are resorted to in order to make beds for the cattle. The heath land. is pared, but the operation is to cut with the spade a very thin slice of the earth, and not to the bottom of the roots of the plants, that they may, as they soon will do, shoot again; the parings are nor only made thin, but in narrow strips or small. Thus but httle soil is taken away, and the roots, though cut, are not all of them destroyed; the parts that are left barare protected from being too much dried up by the sun and wind, and the seeds of the ripe heather are scattered over the spaces left bare near them, and soon bring forth the same plants. By this operation, there is a constant succession provided of This paring for the healthy material. heath is a joint operation performed by the men in a kind of military lines. The society pays each for the work he performs, and, when the average cost is ascertained, the sods are sold to the several households at the same price, and are carried to their respective farms in small one-horse carts, which are kept by the

society for that and for similar purposes; to which mere manual labor cannot be so beneficially applied. When these sods . and dried and conveyed to the barns of the colonists, they are piled in a kind of stack, and portions of it are pulled out, not cut out, to ensure their being broken into small fragments. With these the bedding of the cows or sheep, as the case may be, is formed. The use of bog turi or peat, as one of the materials of compost, is not approved. It impedes the process of fermentation, which is the most important part of the preparation of the heaps of manure. Another expedient is therefore adopted, by paring the second year's grass land, whether of clover, ray grass or fiorin. These clods, containing a proportion of the roots of the plants which have been before harvested from them, and much garden mould, become useful auxiliaries to the beathy turf, and spare the use of that material, which, if solely applied, would require almost as much land to supply it as the farm itself. Fresh material is added to the bedding of the cattle every morning and evening, and remains under them 7 days, when the whole is · wheeled to the dunghill. Each morning, that which lies near the hinder part of the cow is thrown forward, and the part towards its head takes its place, and fresh heather, about a quarter of a folder, or 250 pounds, added to the bedding; the same is also done every evening. The sheep and pigs are only supplied with fresh heather once a day. It is reckoned that ten sheep make an equal quantity of dung with one cow. It must be obvious to every one, that the changing and consequent turning over 13 times must make the mixture of the animal and vegetable substances more equably rich; and the uniform treading of it must break it into. small particles, and give greater scope to the fermentative patrefaction. Each week, the stalls are cleaned, and the dung conveyed to the place appointed at the back of the barn. This is of a round shape, from 3 to 4 feet in depth. The bottom and sides are walled with either clinkers or turf, and made water-tight. It is commonly from 12 to 14 feet in diameter, and sufficiently capacious to contain the dung made by the cattle in the course of four · weeks. The mass is thus composed of portions which have remained from 4 weeks to 1 day, over which the ashes from the household and all the sweepings of the fremises are strewed. Adjoining to the dung-heap is the reservoir, into which the drainings of the stalls are con-

veyed. Equal care is taken that every other material for compost is preserved. In England, little attention is paid to these matters; and, even in agricultural districts, many of the most valuable ingredients for fertilizing the earth (soap-suds, for instance) are constantly thrown away: This sesspool, containing about a hogshead, is never allowed to run over, and, if it has not rained, is every other day filled up with water, and then, with a scoop, taken up, and sprinkled over the heap of dung. This heap contains 4 weeks' dung, or 30 fodder, or 15 tons; and the administering 14 such portions of rich fermenting matter must vastly enhance the value of the whole for the purposes of vegetation. At the end of the fourth week, the dung-hole (called, locally, the gierback) is emptied, and its contents thus again turned over, the most putrid parts being, by this means, brought to the top: it is formed into a heap from 3 to 5 feet high, and carefully covered with sods: by this covering, the fermentative heat is prevented from evaporating, and the rain-water is kept from the mass, into which, if it penetrated, it would check fermentation. When the heap has lam and fermented during 1, 2 or 3 months, it is carried to the field which is to be manured with it. The covering of sods is separated from the heap, and carried to the dung-hole, where it is laid at the bottom of the next monthly accumulation, and imbibes with it an equal proportion of vegetative power.—. The following are the sums of produce and expenditure for each family for one yeur:

The desire of gain, and the approbation of the superintendents, are, in general, found to be sufficient encouragements both to industry and good conduct. When these are not enough, forfeiture of privileges, confinement and hard labor are re-. sorted to. There are also badges of honor-medals of copper, silver and gold. Those who have the copper medal may leave the colony on Sundays without asking leave; the silver is given to those who have made some savings, and they are allowed to go beyond the colony in the intervals of labor on working-days; and when they are entitled to the gold medal, by having shown that they clear \$97,08 a year by their labor, they are free-tenants, and released from all the

341

regulations of the colony. These privileges may, however, be suspended for offences. In the course of 7 years from its first establishment, the colony of Frederics Oord contained a population of 6778, including that of Omne Schanze, which is under a more rigid control. Among the number were 2174 orphans and foundlings. The total number forming all the colonies in Holland was stated to Mr. Jacob as 20,000, but he thinks it evaggerated; there were, however, 8000 in North Holland. Every attention is paid to the education of the young.

Colonies, Military, of Russia. (See

Military Colonies.)

Color is a property of light (q. v.), the knowledge of which can be gained from no description, but is acquired by means of the organ of sight. Coloring substances, or paints, often improperly termed colors, are made use of to impart a color to other substances, either by application or admixture. White and black are counted among colors in the latter sense, but not at all, or seldom, in the former, in which sense a white body is very properly called colorless. Black is merely the absence of all light. Colors, both alone and united, have different properties, and produce different effects upon the organs of sense, by means of their harmony or contrast, which are pattentlarly important to painters, and are properties arising from the nervous sensibility. Thus scarlet is a burning color, injurious to the eyes; and it is probably on this account that beasts are so violently excited Yellow is the brightest, red the warmest, deep brown and violet the softest among colors. The passing of one color into another, by mixture, has been displayed in tables, pyramids, &c., for the use of the painter, the colorer, the mmeralogist, &c.; but it requires constant familiarity with colors, to make upon the mind impressions sufficiently deep to enable us to distinguish these fine shades of color with correctness. (See Colors, Doctrine of.)

Colors, Doctrine of. The doctrine of colors, in a general sense, is the science of the origin, the mixture and effects of color, as a property of light. How, for instance, is it, that light at one time is colored, at another white? and by what laws are the appearances of colors governed? The glass prism was the first contrivance that gave a satisfactory solution of these questions, and sir Isaac Newton (Optics, London, 1706) the first philosopher who explained and published the solution. If a ray of light is allowed to pass into a

dark room through a small opening in a shutter, and is made also to peas through a smooth, three-sided glass prism, we find, .

1. that the ray of light, at its entrance into, and at its passage out of, the glass, is turned from its direct course; it is said to be refracted into a different direction; 2. that the ray of light, which, falling directly upon a piece of paper before the prism, produces a round white spot, produces, when the paper is held behind the prism, a colored figure, about five times. as long as it is wide, and exhibiting the colors of the rainbow, arranged in the same order as they are seen in that phenomenon. This figure or appearance is called the prismatic spectrum. The length of it is found to be in a direction perpendicular to the axis of the prism. red at the end which is nearest to the, refracting angle of the prism, and violet at the end most remote from it, while orange, yellow, green, blue and indigo follow each other in the intervening space. Newton concluded from this and a great variety of similar experiments, that these colored rays are the simple rays of light, and that white light is composed of the union of them all, according to the relations which they exhibit in the prismatic spectrum. Every white ray of light, therefore, contains all the colored rays united; but they are not recognised by us, since they produce upon the retina, where they are thus united, the impression we term white. These colored rays are reflected from all bodies according to similar laws, so that reflected white light is still white; but they are refraugible in different degrees; this property being least in the red rays, moderate in the green, and in the greatest degree in the violet; and they are, on this account, separated from each other whenever they are refracted; since, from their different refrangibility, although they are parallel, when they fall upon the refracting substance, they take different lines of direction in passing through it. They follow each other, in this respect, in the following order; first violet, then indigo, blue, green, yellow, orange and red. When these same colored rays are rendered parallel again, and so fall upon the eye, they appear white, as at first. . Most bodies possess the property of fixing or absorbing some of these colored rays, which fall upon them, and thus only reflect or transmit rays of a particular color; and upon this property, according to Newton, the colors of all bodies depend. Blue silk, for example, absorbs six colored rays, and reflects only the blue; and a solution

29\*

absorbs all the other rays. All this is confirmed by the experiments with colded disks revolving rapidly upon a rad, and with the colored spectrum falling Newton has ex-Aupon colored bodies. plained this theory in his Optics. notwithstanding the talent which it displays, it is still not entirely satisfactory. Several writers (especially Wunsch, in his Experiments and Observations upon the Colors of Light, Versuche, &c. uber die Furben des Lichts, Leipsic, 1792) have made changes and improvements in this , theory, particularly in regard to the number of simple colored rays, which some have reduced to three and others to two.

Colors of Plants. We find in plants eight fundamental colors, which are called pure and unmixed colors-white, gray, black, blue, green, yellow, red and brown. Each of these exhibits seven varieties, which, in respect to their gradations, are entirely equal and alike. Thus, for example, of white, there are pure or snowwhite; whitish or duty white; milk or bluish white; amianthus or gravish white; ivory or yellowish white; purzellan or reddish white; and chalk or brownish The blue crocus often changes into yellow; the blue violet to white; the blue columbine to red; the red tulip to a yellow, and the yellow to a white, &c. The same thing may be observed in fruits. Linuwus has inferred the properties, and especially the taste of plants, from their color. Yellow is generally butter, red sour, green denotes a rough alkaline taste, paleness a flat taste, whiteness a sweet, and black a disagreeable taste, and also a porsonous, destructive property. Colors, in the vegetable as well as in the animal world, appear to be in truth a secret of nature. How, for instance, bright yellow and deep red or green are made to appear side by side upon a leaf, separated by the finest lines only, and yet not produced by any variety of properties which is perceptible to any of our senses, is a mystery to us. Moreover, nature, in some cases, appears to distribute colors with the greatest regularity, while, in other instances, she sports in the most lawless irregularity.

Coloring; one of the essential parts of painting (q. v.), viz. that part which relates to colors. Besides a knowledge of the art of preparing and mixing colors, and the whole mechanical process, from the beginning to the finishing of a picture, which, in the various kinds of painting, varies according to the materials of each, coloring comprehends the knowledge of

of codifical transmits only the red, and the laws of light and colors, and all the rules deducible from the observation of their effects in nature, for the use of the artist. This subject has been treated by Leonardo da Vinci, in his work on paint, ing; Lomazzo and Gerard Lairesse, in books on the same subject; Mengs, in his Praktischer Unterricht; Göthe, in his Farbenlehre, &c. The skill of the painter presupposes a natural ability, founded on superior sensibility, viz. the ability to image forth, and, in the imitation, to express with characteristic truth, the peculiar substance and color of any object under the in-To make this fluences of the light and air. imitation successful, an accurate attention to the local tones and tints is requisite. By local tones we understand the natural color of an object as it appears on the spot where it stands, or from the spot where the spectator is supposed to be stationed. In works of art, the natural color of an object appears always as a local tone, because every object must be regarded from only one point of view; conformably to which the natural color is modified according to the supposed distance. By tints we understand, in a more restricted sense, the gradations of the clear and obscure, which lights and shadows produce on the colored (See Chiaro scuro.) In no object of art do these modifications and shades exist in greater delicacy and diversity than in the naked human body, which is, consequently, the most difficult subject for a painter. Coloring, in as far as it is an imitation of the color and character of flesh (the maked body), is called *carnation*. If, in addition to the accurate coincidence of the natural colors, local tones and tints of a painting, with its original, the artist hits the expression of the peculiar character of the substance of which the object consists, the coloring is called true: But to truth should be joined beauty, which is attained by the harmonious union of all the tones of the painting into one leading tone. The coloring must conform to and promote the object of the painting, as a work of art, and, by the harmony of the colors and lights, as well as by the truth of the local colors, and of the individual parts of the subject, constitute one beautiful whole. In the choice of lights and the distribution of colors, the artist should aim, not only at clearness of representation, but, at the same time, at the production of a pleasing harmony, which should aid the general impression of Consequently, keeping and the piece. chiaro scuro are comprehended in the idea of correct, beautiful coloring.

often see pictures, in which the colors are true to nature, but which have little merit as works of art, because they are deficient which is essential to a beautiful painting.

COLOSSUS (Lat.; solorods, Gr.), in sculpture; a statue of enormous magnitude, whence the Greek proverb κολοσσαΐον το The practice of executing statues of colossal dimensions and proportions is of very high antiquity. The people of the East, from the most ancient times, have been celebrated for colossal sculpture. The pagodas of China and of India-and the excavated caverns of the East, abound with colossi of every denomination. The Asiatics, the Egyptians, and, in particular, the Greeks, have excelled in these works. The celebrated colossus of Rhodes was reckoned one of the seven wonders of the This statue, which Muratori reckons among the fables of antiquity, was raised, by the Rhodians, in honor of Apol-There are many contradictory accounts in ancient authors concerning this colossal statue of Apollo; but the following, gathered from several sources, is not devoid of interest, though mixed up with much fable. When Demetrius, king of Macedon, the son of Antigonus, laid siege to the city of Rhodes, because the Rhodians would not renounce their alliance with Ptolemy Soter, they were succored by their allies, and particularly by Ptolemy, so effectually, that the besiegers were compelled to abundon their enterprise. The Rhodians, in recognition of their regard for these services of their allies, and of the protection of their tutelary deity, Apollo, resolved to erect a brazen statue. of the sun, of a prodigious size. Chares, the disciple of Lysippus, was intrusted with the project. He had scarcely half finished the work, when he found that he had expended all the money that he had received for the whole, which over- whelmed him so completely with grief and despair, that he hanged himself. Laches, his fellow-countryman, finished the work in the space of three Olympiads (twelve years), and placed the enormous Pliny does not statue on its pedestal. mention the latter artist, but gives all the honor to Chares. Scarcely 60 years had elapsed before this monster of art was thrown from its place by an earthquake, which broke it off at the knees, and so it remained till the conquest of Rhodes by the Saracens, in A. D. 684, when it was beaten to pieces, and sold to a Jew merchant, who loaded above 900 camels with its spoils. Strabo, Pliny, and other

ancient authors, who lived at the time that the colossus of Rhedes is said to have been in existence, and who could have in that harmonious union of excellences learned from contemporaries the truth or falsehood of the accounts of it, give its height at 70 cubits, or a hundred English feet. Other authors, who flourished since its destruction, report its height at 80 cu-Pliny also relates other particulars, as that few persons could embrace its thumb, and that its fingers were as long as ordinary statues, which, calculated by the proportion of a well-made man, would make its height nearer to 80 than 70 cubits. Perhaps the latter dimension may relate to its real altitude to the crown of its head, and the greater to its altitude if But we are not aware that any writer has given this reason for the ancient difference. The statue was placed across the entrance of the harbor, with its feet on two rocks; and the Rhodian vessels could pass under its legs. Some antiquaries have thought, with great justice, that the fine head of the sun, which is stamped upon the Rhodian medals, is a representation of that of the colossus. Of other colossal statues, those which were executed by Pludias are among the most celebrated for beauty and elegance of workmanship. They were his Olympian Jupiter and Lis Minerva of the Parthenon. The virgin goddess was represented in a noble attitude, 26 cabits or 39 feet in height, erect, clothed in a tunic reaching to the feet. In her hand she brandished a spear, and at her feet lay her buckler and a dragon of admirable execution, supposed to represent Erichthonius. On the middle of her helmet a sphynx was carved, and on each of its sides a griffin. On the agis were displayed a Medusa's head and a figure of victory. This colossal work was not only grand and striking in itself, but contained, on its various parts, curious specimens of minute sculpture in bassi rilievi, which Phidias is said to have His Olympian brought to perfection. Jupiter was executed after the ungrateful treatment that he received from the Athemans, when he abandoned the city of his birth, which he had rendered celebrated by his works, and took refuge in Elis. Animated rather than subdued by the ingratitude of his countrymen, Phidias labored to surpass the greatest works with which he had adorned Athens. this view he framed the statue of Jupiter Olympius for the Eleans, and succeeded even in excelling his own Minerva in the Parthenon. This colossal statue was 60 feet in height, and completely imbodied

344

the millime picture which Homer has given of the mythological monarch of the heavens. While describing the colossi of ancient times, we should not forget the inagnificent and extravagant proposal of Dinocrates to Alexander the Great, of forming mount Athos into a colorsus of : that conqueror; nor a similar proposal, in modern times, of sculpturing one of the Alps, near the pass of the Simplon, into a resemblance of Napoleon. Among other . celebrated colossi of ancient times, historians record as emmently beautiful, that which was executed by Lysippus at Tarentum. It was 40 cubits or 60 feet The difficulty of carrying it in height. away, more than moderation in the conqueror, alone prevented Fabius from removing it to Rome, with the statue of Hercules, belonging to the same city. Colossi were in use also in Italy before the time when the Romans despoiled their vanqui-hed enemies of their works of art. The Jupiter of Leontium in Sicily was 7 cubits in height, and the Apollo of wood that was transported from Etruria, and placed in the palace of Augustus, at Roine, 50 feet. The same emperor also placed a fine bronze colossus of Apollo in the temple of that god, which he built near his own palace." The earliest colossus recorded to have been sculptured in Rome was the statue of Jupiter Capitohnus, which Spurus Carvilus placed in the capitol after his victory over the Samnites; but colossi soon became far from Five are particularly noticed: namely, two of Apollo, two of Jupiter, and one of the sun. There has been dug up, among the ruins of ancient Rome, a colossal statue of the city of Rome, which was reckoned among the tutelary divinuties of the empire. The superb colossi on the Monte Cavallo, called by some antiquaries the *Dioscuri*, are magnificent specimens of Grecian art; so are the Farnese Hercules and the gigantic Flora of the Bel-It used to be the common opinvedere. ion, that the colossi on Monte Cavallo both represented Alexander tanning Bucephalus. They are now generally believed to represent the Dioscuri Castor and Pollux ; the statue which, according to the inscription on the pedestal, is the work of Phidias, being intended for Castor; the other, of inferior value, and, according to the inscription, the production of Praxiteles, representing Pollux. The original design of these statues is not known; nor does it appear from history what led Praxiteles, after an interval of about 80 years, to execute a counterpart to the work of Phidias,

in case the inscription is to be credited.', The editors of Winckelmann's works (vi. 2d part, p. 73, and v. p. 560), on account of the elevated character of the first of these statues, think it reasonable to attribute it, as the inscription does, to Phidias; for in the individual parts there is no narrow, labored care perceptible in the execution, no overwrought polish and elegance. From various inequalities on the statue of the man-for instance, on the chin-they conjecture that this work was not completed by that great master, and hence was anot esteemed so highly at first as afterwards, when the era of noble Grecian sculpture had passed away, and when the statue was probably first set up. But, as the primitive design of the work required a counterpart, they conjecture that the sculpture was committed to Praxiteles, the most perfect artist of that period. On this hypothesis, they explain the marks of a later age in the second statue, particularly the great dextenty with which the master has mutated the first, and finished every part without seeming to be, a mere copyist. The want of that lotty spirit which distinguishes the earlier statue they ascribe to the constraint of the artist in forming a counterpart to a previous work, and to the circumstance that Praxiteles, belonging to an age which was fond of the gentle and soft, effected the lists with the giant of an earher period in the arts (Winckelmann's Works, vi., 2d part, p. 155.) Canova has attempted to prove, from the nature of the groups, that in both the hero and horse were so placed that the two could be seen at once; and perhaps it was so originally; but the horse is now exactly opposite to the spectator, and the whole is less agreeably grouped. Rome possesses several other colossi, of admirable workmanship, n - the colossal statue of Alexander the Great, in the Colonna palace; the rare colossus of Antoninus, in the Palazzi Vitelleschi; the celebrated statue of the • Nile: the four statues that surround the splendid fountain and obehsk of the Piazza Navona, the admired work of Bermm. They are personifications of four of the principal rivers in the world; namely, the Ganges, which was sculptured by Fran. Baratta; the Nile, by Antonio Fancelli; the Danube, by Claude Franc; and the Rio de la Plata, by Antonio Raggi. Other colossal statues of less consequence are also found, among the beautiful and ambition of the Roman emperors led them to encourage sculptured representations of their persons. Nero was the first

who ventured on a colossus of himself, by Zenodorus; but, after his death, it was dedicated to Apollo or the sun. Commodus afterwards took off the head, and replaced it with a portrait of himself. Domitian, actuated by a similar ambition, prepared a colossus of himself as the deity of the sun. Among more modern works of this nature is the enormous colossus of San Carlo Borromeo, at Arona, in the Milanese territory. It is of bronze, 60 feet in height, and has a staircase in its interior, for the purpose of occasional repairs and restorations. The brenze colossus, copied from one of the Monte Cavallo statues, in Hyde park, London, and a few but little larger than life, of the size that may be termed heroic rather than colossal, such as decorate some public buildings and commemorative columns, as those on St. Paul's cathedral; lord Hill's column in Shrewsbury; the Britannia, on the Nelson column, at Yarmouth; the duke of Bedford, an Russel square; Charles Fox, in Bloomsbury square, &c., are nearly all that England can boast of in this noble style of art. The four colossal statues at Paris, which are in front of the facade of the palace of the corps ligislatif, are in good taste, and show great boldness and recommended execution. They represent the four greatest legislators of France—Sully, Colshow great boldness and freedom in the are in their proper costume, and scated. Canova's Perseus is also much larger than hie, and a very fine work. It belongs rather to the heroic than the colossal.

Солоив. (See Color.), Сологноих, Patrick; a metropolitan magistrate, noted as a writer on statistics and criminal jurisprudence. He was born at Dumbarton, in Scotland, in 1745, and, early in life, went to America to engage in commerce. In 1766, he returned home, and settled as a merchant at Glasgow, of which city he became lord provost, and was likewise chairman of the chamber of commerce. Having removed to London, he was made a police magistrate in 1792; in which situation he distinguished himself by his activity and application; the "result of which was, a Treatise on the Police of the Metropolis, published in 1796. This work procured him the honorary degree of LL.D. from the university of Glasgow. In 1800, he published a work on the police of the river Thames, suggesting a plan, afterwards adopted, for the protection of property on the river, and in the adjacent parts of the metropolis. He was also the author of a Treatise

on Indigence, exhibiting a general View of the National Resources for Productive Labor; a Treatise on the Population, Wealth, Power and Resources of the British Empire; and a tract on the education of the laboring classes. Mr. Coluboun died April 25, 1820, aged 75, having resigned his official situation about two years previous to his decease.

COLUMBA, St., a native of Ireland, founded the monastery of Icolmkill. About 565, he went into Scotland, and was favorably received by the king Bridius, who gave him the isle of Hy, where he established his famous seminary. He died in 597, having acquired great influence.

COLUMBANUS, a missionary and reformer of monastic life, born in 560, in Ireland, became a monk in the Irish monastery of Benchor, went through England to France, in 589, with twelve other monks, to preach Christianity, and founded, in 500, the monasteries of Annegray, Lux-eul and Fontaine, in Burgundy. His rule, which was adopted in later times by . many movasteries in France, commands blind obedience, silence, fasting, prayers; and labor, much more severe than the Benedictine rule, and punishes the smallest offences of the monks with stripes, the number of which proves the barbarism of his times, and his savage character. He retained also the old ecclesiastical customs of the Irish, among which is the celebration of Easter at a different time from the \* Roman church. Queen Brunehaut banished him on account of his inflexibility of character, 609; upon which he went among the heathen Alemanni, and preached Christianity in the vicinity of Bregentz, on lake Constance. His companion Gal (that is, Gallus, founder of the monastery St. (fal) obstructed his success by his violence in destroying the monuments of the heathens, till a war, in 612, put a stop to his labors. Columbanus then went into Lombardy, and founded the monastery of Bobbio, in which he died, Oct. 22, 615. His intrepid, violent and heroic spirit is displayed in his letters to the popes Gregory I and Boniface IV, in which he refused to celebrate Easter with the Roman church, warned the popes against heresies, and represented, in a strong light, the corruption of the church. His services in reforming the monastic discipline, and the number of his miracles, caused him to be canonized. His writings are few, and of the ascetic kind. His rule was observed the longest in the large, rich monastery of Luxeuil, and was supplanted

first, in the ninth century, by the Benedic- years. It had, in 1824, a president, 4 pro-tine. The habit of his monks was white. fessors, 2 tutors, and 102 students. tine. The habit of (See Benedictines.)

COLUMBARIUM (Lat.), in ancient architecture; a pigeon-house or dove-cote.

Columbarium fittile; an earthen pot for birds to breed in. In the cemeteries of · the ancient Romans, the apertures that were formed in the wall for the reception of the cinerary unns were also called columbaria, from their resemblance to the " openings of a pigeon-house.

COLUMBIA: a post-town in Richland district. South Carolina, and the seat of the state government: 35 miles S. W. Carnden, 73 N. E. Augusta, 120 N. N. W. Charleston; lon. 81°,7′ W.; lat. 33° 57′ N.; population, in 1820, 3000. It is situated opposite to the confluence of the Saluda and Broad rivers, which unite here to form the Congaree. From the river there is a gradual ascent for one mile; then commences a plain of between two and three miles in extent, gradually descending on every side. This elevated plain forms the site of the town, which presents a handsome and extensive prospect. The town was formed in 1787. It is regularly The streets intersect each other at right angles, and are 100 feet wide. Columbia is a flourishing town, and contains a state-house, a court-house, a jail, a market-house, an academy for males, and one for females, a college, and 4 houses of public worship—I for Episcopulans, I for Presbyterians, I for Baptists, and I for Methodists. The state-house is of 2 stories, 170 feet by 60, and is smuated in the central part of the town. The houses display much taste and elegance. steam-boat plies between this town and Charleston. The South Carolina college was founded in this town in 1802, but degrees were not conferred here until 1807. It is under the liberal patronage of the state legislature, from which it has recrived annually a grant of \$10,000 or **\$12,000.** The college buildings are 2 edifices, of 3 stories, about 210 feet long, and 25 wite, containing a chapel, reentation-rooms, and rooms for the accommodation of students; a large building containing a library of about 5000 volumes, and an extensive philosophical apparatus; and houses for the accommodation of the president and professors; all of brick. It is under the direction of a board of trus-. tees, consisting of the governor, lieutenant-governor, president of the senate, speaker of the house of representatives, the judges of the state, and 13 other members, elected by the legislature every 4

COLUMBIA COLLEGE. (See New York.) COLUMBIA, DISTRICT OF; a tract of country 10 miles square, on both sides of the Potomac, about 120 miles from its mouth, ceded to the U. States, by Virginia and Maryland, in 1790. It includes the cities of Washington, Alexandria and Georgetown. Population in 1810, 21,023; slaves, 5395: population in 1820, 32,039. The exports of this district, in 1827, amounted to \$1,182,000; the shipping, in 1819 to 22,141 tons. This district is under the immediate government of congress. and is remarkable chiefly for contaming the city of Washington, which became the seat of the government of the U. States in 1800. The surface is uneven, but there are no high hills, and the soil is thin and sandy.

COLUMBIA RIVER; a large river of North America, which rises, according to Mackenzie, in the Rocky mountains, about lon. 1219 W., lat. 54° 23' N., within a few miles of the source of the Unitah or Peace river, and, after a course of about 1500 nules, flows into the Pacific ocean between point Adams and cape Disappointment, lon. 123° 54′ W., lat. 46° 19′ N. three great tributaries of this river are the Mulmomah, Lewis's river and Clerk's river, all flowing into it on the S. E. side; the Multnomah 139 miles from its mouth, Lewis's river 113, and Clark's 600 miles. At the point of the junction of Lewis's river, the Columbia is 960 yards wide. The tide flows up 183 miles, to within 7 indes of the great rapids. Vessels of 300 tons may reach the Multnomah, and large sloops may ascend as high as the tide. Above the rapids, the havigation is good for C5 miles, when it is interrupted by the long narrows; and 6 miles higher up, that is, 261 miles above the mouth of the river, it is interrupted by falls of 20 feet perpendicular; above the falls, the navigation continues good to the junction of Lewis's The portages around these obriver. structions of the navigation amount, in all, to 5 miles. The entrance of the Columbia hes between breakers, which extend from cape Disappointment to a point on the southern shore, over a sort of bar or\* extensive flat. The entrance into the river and the egress out of it are difficult at all seasons, and, from October to April, extremely dangerous; and, in the opinion of experienced navigators, it cannot, at any season, be entered by loaded vessels of 400 tons. The westerly wind prevails on this coast, and the sea breaks on the bar with great violence. The first modern naviga-

tor that entered this river was Mr. Gray, commander of the ship Columbia, of Boston. He entered it in 1791, and since that the Oregon and River of the West. The country bordering on the Columbia, towards the occan, is covered with heavy timber, consisting almost wholly of fir, of which captains Lewis and Clark mention 7 species, some growing to a great height. The soil is fertile, composed of a dark rich The length of the valley from The climate is much milder than in the same parallel on the Atlantic coast.

COLUMBITE, or TANTALITE, is the name of the mineral in which the metal columbium is found. It, occurs in single crystals, or in small crystalline masses, dissemmated through granite. The form of its crystal is that of a right rectangular prism, variously terminated at one or both of its extremities. It is black, opaque, scratches glass, and is possessed of a specific gravity varying from 646 to 7. It contains, according to Wollaston, oxide of columbium 80, oxide of iron 15, oxide of manganese It sometimes contains, also, the oxides of tungsten and of tin. Columbae was first found in Connecticut, at New London, afterwards in Finland, and more lately at Bodenmais, in Bavaria. It is occasionally met with at Haddam, in Connecticut, and has very recently been discovered at Chesterfield, in Massachuseits. Columbite, notwithstanding its numerous localties, is still an exceedingly rare sub-

Collyngian. This metal was discovered, m. 1801, by Mr. Hatchett, who' detected it in a black mineral, belonging to the British museum, which was originally sent to sir Hans Sloane by governor Winthrop, of Connecticut, and was supposed to have been found near New London, in that state. About two years after, M. Ekéberg, a Swedish chemist, extracted , the same substance from tantalite and yttro-tantalite, and, on the supposition of its being different from columbium, described it under the name of *lantalum*. The identity of these metals, however, was established, in 1809, by doctor Wollaston.—Columbium exists in its ores as an acid, united either with the exides of iron, manganese and tin, as in the columbite or tantalite; or in combination with the earth yttria, as in the vitro-columbite, or yttrotantalite. This acid is obtained by fusing its ore with three or four times its weight of carbonate of potash, when a soluble

COLUMBIA RIVER—COLUMBUS. 247
river was Mr. Gray, columbate of that alkali results, from which columbic acid is precipitated as a white hydrate by acids. When this acid time the river has been known by the, is exposed to the united agency of char-". name of Columbia. It was before called 'codl and intense heat, it is reduced to the metallic state. The metal is brittle, of an iron-gray color, and feebly-metallic lustre. Its specific gravity is 5.6. It is not attacked by the nitric, muriatic or nitro-muriatic acids, but is converted into the acid by being heated with potash or nitre. Columbium has hitherto been obtained in very minute quantities, and has never north to south has never been ascertained. .been applied to any economical purpose. Columbite, the ore from whence it is obtained, has of late been discovered in several places in New England.

COLUMBO; a city of Ceylon; 70 miles S. W. Candy; lon. 79° 47' E.; lat. 6° 58' N.; population estimated at upwards of 50,000. It is the capital of the island, the sent of government, situated on the S. W. The plan of the city is regular, nearly divided into four quarters by two principal streets, and the town is built more in the European style than most garrisons in India, though but few of the houses have more than one story. It is a place of considerable trade; but the harbor is difficult of access, and unsafe for large vessels. Scarcely any place, in the world displays a greater variety of nations,

manners and religions.

Columbus, Christopher (in Spanish, Colon; in Italian, Cristoforo Colombo, which is his real name), one of the greatest men mentioned in history, was born in Genoa, about 1435, and not, as some assert, at Cuccarozin Montferrat. His fa- . ther, Domenico Colombo, a poor woolcomber, gave him a careful education. He soon evinced a strong passion for geographical knowledge; and an irresistable inclination for the sea, and, at 14 years of age, he began to navigate in the Mediterranean. We afterwards find him in command of a vessel, in a squadron which a relation of his had fitted out against the Mohammedans and Venetians. In one of his engagements with the Venetians, the vessel which he commanded took fire, and Columbus saved his life by swimming ashore. Portugal, at that time, attracted the attention of Europe by her maritime expeditions, and Columbus repaired to Lisbon, where he found relations and countrymen. Here he married the daughter of Bartolomeo de Palestrello, a distinguished navigator, who had participated in the discovery of Porto Santo, and had left many charts and nautical instruments. Columbus made use of these

in materials, and his opinion that the other manding spirit, to prevent an open rebelside of the globe contained land, belong-ing to Eastern Asia, and connected with India, which was, as yet, little known, hecame more and more fixed. Whilst the Portuguese were seeking for it by a south-, east course round Africa, he was convinced that there must be a shorter way by the west. He applied in vain to his native city. Genoa, for assistance, and equally fruitless were his endeavors to interest John II of Portugal in the enterprise. He then determined to apply to the Spanish court. His brother Bartholo-rhew sailed for England, but was captured by pirates. Columbus explained his plan to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, and, after an 8 years' struggle with the obstacles thrown in his way by ignorance and malice, he received 3 small vessels, with 120 men. Two of the vessels were light barques, called caravals, like the coasting craft of modern days, with forecastles and cabins for the crew, but without a deck in the centre. These caravals, called the Pinta and the Niña, were commanded by two brothers, named Pinzon. The third vessel, on board of Which was Columbus, was completely decked. The dignity of high-admiral and viceroy of all the countries he migh discover was conferred on him, the former to be hereditary in his family. A certain share of the profits was secured to him by a written contract with the sovereigns.-It was early in the morning of Friday, on the third of August, 1492, that Columbus set sail from the port of Palos. Eighteen years had clapsed since he had first conceived the idea of this enterprise. Most of that time had been passed in almost hopeless solicitation, amidst poverty, neglect and ridicule; the prime of his life had been wasted in the struggle, and, when his perseverance was finally crowned with success, he was about 56 years of age. Nor should it be forgotten that it was to Isabella (q. v.) alone that he was finally indebted for the means of executing his project, which had been coldly rejected by the prudent Ferdmand. Having provided himself, at the Canary Islands, with fresh water, he sailed south-west into an occan never before navigated. But when '21 days had elapsed without the sight of ' any land, the courage of his men began to sink. It was certain, they said, that they should perish, and their visionary comnumber qualit to be forced to return. Some of them even proposed to throw him overboard; and Columbus had to exert all the powers of his daring and com-

lion. A phenomenon, which surprised. even him, filled his pilots with consterns... tion: the needle deviated a whole degree, But the sea appeared suddenly covered with grass, and again showed symptoms of shoals and rocks. Numbers of birds were also seen. Columbus sailed in the . direction from which they flew. some days, the voyage was continued . with revived courage, until, at last, the dissatisfaction of the crews began to break \ out into open violence; but Columbus, after endeavoring in vain to pacify his men by promises, finally assumed a dif-.. ferent tone, and told them it was useless to murmur; that he was determined to persevere. Fully convinced that he must be near the land, he promised a reward to whosoever should first discover it. All hands remained on deck during the night, and, after Columbus had himself discovered land, Oct. 11, and pointed it out to some of his friends, the cry of Land was raised at midnight from the Pinta, which, from her superior sailingt kept ahead of the other vessels. It was the island of Guanaham. On landing, Columbus threw himself upon his knees, and kissed the earth, returning thanks to God. The natives collected round him in silent astonishment, and his men, ashamed of their disobedience and distrust, threw themselves at his feet, begging his forgiveness. Columbus, drawing his sword, planted the royal standard, and, in the name of his sovereigns, took possession of the country, which, in memory of his preservation. be called St. Salvador. He then received the homage of his followers, as admiral and victory and representative of the sovereigns. Being informed by the natives that there was a rich gold country towards the south, Columbus directed his course towards that region, and discovered Cuba on the 28th October, and Española (Hispaniola, Hayti) on the 6th December; but, as one of his vessels was wrecked, and the other separated from him, he resolved to carry the news of his success to Spain. Having built a wooden. fort from the wreck of his vessel, he left in it 39 volunteers, and set out on his return January 4, 1493. The day after he left the island, he met the Pinta, which had been missing. Both vessels were afterward nearly wrecked in a tremendous storm. Columbus, more interested for his discovery than for himself, wrote an account of his voyage on a piece, of parchment, which he secured in a cask, and threw the whole overboard, in the

hope that it might be carried ashore. He had hardly finished this work, when the gale subsided. March 15, he reentered the port of Palos, amid the acclama-tions of the people, the thunder of caned immediately to Barcelona, where the court then was, and entered the eny m a triumphal procession, with the productions of the newly-discovered countries carried before him. A chair-was placed for him next to the throne, and, seating turnself, he gave an account of his discoveries. He was created a grandee, and all the marks of royal favor were lavished opon hun. Sept. 25, 1493, he set sail from Cadiz with 3 large ships of heavy parden, and 14 caravals, carrying 1500 men. Nov. 2, he arrived at Hispaniola. Finding the colony he had left destroyed, he built a fortified town, which be called, in honor of the queen, Isabella, and of which he appointed his brother Diego governor. He numediately left the island, in order to make new discoveries, . visited Jamaica, and, returning, after a voyage of 5 months, worn down with fangue, found, to his great joy, that his brother Bartholomew, who had escaped from his captivity, had arrived at Is do lki, with provisions and other supplies for the Meanwhile, a general dissatiscolony. faction had broken out among his compamons, who, instead of the expected treasures, had found hardships and labor. They set on foot many calumnnes, and gave the most unfavorable description of the country and the viceroy. Columbus thought he could not better oppose these reports than by sending considerable trensures to his sovereigns, and, for this purpose, collected gold from the natives, which was not done without violence and some cruelty. Aguado, a personal enemy of Columbus, was sent as commissioner to mye-tigate the complaints against the great discoverer, who, thinking it time to vindicate himself in the presence of his sovereigns, prepared to return to Spain. Having appointed his brother Bartholomew adelantado or hentenant-governor, the embarked for Spain, March 10, 1496, with 225 Spaniards and 30 natives. In Spani, calminy was silenced by his presence, and probably still more by his treasures. Yet his enemies were powertreasures. ful enough to detain the supplies intended for the colony a whole year, and to pre-vent the fitting out of a new expedition for Columbus another year. It was not till May 30, 1498, that he sailed, with 6 vessels, on his third voyage. To man 30

these vessels, criminals had unwisely. been taken-a measure which Columbus himself had advised, and which had been taken up, with great satisfaction, by his encluies. Three of his vessels he sent non and the ringing of bells. He hasten- direct to Hispaniola; with the three others, he took a more southerly direction, for the purpose of discovering the main land, which information derived from the natives induced him to suppose lay to the south of his former discoveries. He visited Trinidad and the continent of America, the coasts of Paris and Cumana, and returned to Hispaniola, convinced that he had reached a continent. His colony had been removed from Isabella, according to his orders, to the other side of the island, ) and a new fortress erected, which was called St. Domingo. Columbus found the colony in a state of confusion. After having restored tranquility by his prudent measures, in order to supply the deficiency of laborers, he distributed the land and the inhabitants, subjecting the latter to the . arbitrary will of their masters, and thus laying the foundation of that system of slavery which has lasted down to our time. His enemies, in the mean time, endeavored to convince his sovereigns that he had abused his power, and that his plan was to make himself independent, till, at last, even Isabella yielded to the wishes of Ferdmand, who had previously become convinced of the truth of the slanders. Francisco de Bobadilla was sent to Hispamola, with extensive powers, to call the viceroy to account. As soon as he reached the island, he summoned Columbus to appear before him, and put him in nons. His brothers were treated in the same manner. All three were sent to Spam, accompanied by a number of written charges, drawn up from the statements of the bitterest enemies of Colum-Columbus endured this outrage with noble equanimity, and wrote, as soon as he had arrived in Cadiz, Nov. 23, 1500, to a lady of the court, vindicating his conduct, and describing, in eloquent and touching language, the treatment he had. received. Orders were immediately sent, directing him to be set at liberty, and înviting him to court, where his sovereigns received him with the same distinction as formerly. Isabella was moved to tears, and Columbus, overcome by his longsuppressed feelings, threw himself upon his knees, and, for some time, could not utter a word for the violence of his tears and sobbings. He then defended himself by a simple account of his conduct, and was reinstated in his dignities. Ferdi-

nand even consented to dismiss Bohadilla, which was intended for the first step towards the promised restoration of the great discoverer to his dignities. But soon changed. There was much talk of great expeditions, and, in the mean time, Nicolo de Ovando y Lares was sent as governor to Hispamola. Columbus still urged the fulfilment of the promises solennily made to him; but, after two years of delay, he became convinced that there was no intention to do him justice. But his noble mind had now learned how to suffer, and he was principally desirous of Supposing the completing his work. continent which he had seen to be Asia, he did not doubt that he should find, through the isthmus of Darien, a way to the East Indies, from which the first fleet of the Portuguese had just returned, richly laden. In four slender vessels, supplied by the court for this purpose, Columbus sailed from Cadiz, on his fourth and last voyage, March 9, 1502, with his brother Baltholomew and his son Fernando; arrived, contrary to his\_wishes, off St. Domingo, June 29, and was denied permission to enter the port, for the pinpose of refitting his vessels, and escaping an approaching storm. He succeeded, however, in acchoring his small squadron m a place of safety, and rode out the storm, windst 15 vessels, which had put to sea in spite of his warning, were almost entirely destroyed. He then continued his voyage to Darien, but without ruding the expected passage. Two of his vessels were destroyed by a gale; the two others were wrecked off Januara, where he was scarcely able to save turnself and his companions. Here the severest trials awaited the constancy of Columbis Separated from the other part of the world, his destruction seemed to be certam. But he succeeded in procuring a few canoes from the natives, and prevaded on some of his boldest and best men ம் attempt a voyage io Hispamola, in two canoes, in order to inform the governor of his situation. Several months clapsed without a glimpse of hope. Part of ins companions, reduced to despay, rebelled, repeatedly threatened his rife, separated from him, and settled on another part of the island. Here they alrended the minds of the natives, by their crief treatment, so much that they ceased to bring them supphes. The death of all seemed mevitable; but Columbus, whose comage rose with the danger, preserved his men in this crisis. He had ascertained that a to-

tal eclipse of the moon was about to take place, and threatened the natives with the vengeance of his God if they should persist in their enmity. As a proof of his these dispositions in the monarchs were assertion, the moon, he said, would lose its light, in token of the chastisement which awaited them. Whoh they beheld his threat verified, they hastened to bring hun provisions, and implore his intercession with the Deity. But hostilities now broke out between him and the rebels, in which several of the latter were killed, and then leader was taken prisoner. After, remaining a year on the island, relief at last appeared. The two canoes had reached Hispaniola in safety, but the messengers could not prevail on the governor to undertake the deliverance of the adimral. They finally bought a vessel themselves, and it was on board of this ship that Columbus left Jamaica, June 28, 1504. He went to St. Domingo, but only to repair his vessel, and then histened back to Spain. He arrived in Spain sick and exhausted. The death of the queen soon followed, and he urged in vain on Perdmand the fulfilment of his contract. After two years of illness, humilations and despondency, Columbus died at Valladolid, May 20, 1506, in the 70th year of lus age His remains were transported, according to his will, to the city of St. Donfingo, but, in 1795, on the cession of Hispaniola to the French, they were removed, with grept pomp, to the cathedral of Havannah, in Uuba. The chains which he had worn, he kept hanging in his cabmet, and requested that, when he died, they might be buried in his grave. A splendid monument was creeted in honor of him, in a Carthuran convent at Sevule, where his hody was first deposited. by the vigor of manhood, Columbus was of an engaging presence, tall, wall formed and muscular, and of an elevated and diginfield demeanor. His visage was long, Ins nose aquiline, his eyes light-gray, and His whole countenance. apt to enkindle had an air of authority. Care and trouble had tinued his han white at 30 years of age. He was moderate and simple in dier and apparel, eloquent in discourse, engaging and adlable with strangers, and of great amiableness and snavny in domestic life. His temper was naturally irritable, but he subdued it by the benevolence and generosity of his heart. Throughout his life, he was noted for a salet attention to the offices of religion; nor did his piety consist in mere forms, but partook of that lofty and solemn enthusasm, with which his whole character

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inventive genius, a lofty and noble ambition, his conduct was characterized by the grandeur of his views and the magnanimity of his spirit. The treatment which he experienced from his court showed that ingratutude is not confined to republics. The two men who have probably done most, in modern times, to change the face of the world have been Italians-Columbus and Napoleon.—For further information respecting the life of Columbus, we refer the reader to the Life of Columbus (in Itahan), by Bossi (French translat. Paris, 1824); Columbus and his Discoveries, by Spotorno: Memonals of Columbus (original writings of Columbus, translated from the Spanish and Italian, London, 1824); and Codice Diplomatico Colombo Americano, Genou, 1823, 4to. Navarete's Collection of the Voyages of Discovery made by the Spaniards (collected .from the archives), Madrid, 4 vols. 4to., and French, Paris, 1828, contains the journals of Columbus, and many letters, then first printed. The many letters, then first printed. latest account of the great discoverer is Washington Irving's Life and Voyages of Columbus, 3 vols. evo., New York, 1828, abridged by the same, I vol. 12mo, New York, 1829.

Collybus; a post-town, and seat of the government of the state of Olno, in Franklin county, on the east bank of the Scioto, he force come of the state, 45 miles N. of Challeothe, 101 N. E. of Cinemnati; lat, 39° 47 N.; lon, 83° 8 W.; population, in 1825, about 1500. It was first laid out in 1812, and as pleasantly situated on rising ground, just below the confluence of Whetstone river with the Scioto. It contains a brick state-house, an edifice for the public offices of the state, a peintentiary, a market-house, and three printing-offices. The state-house is built on a public square, situated in the centre of the town, and comprising ten acres; and the cupola commands an extensive and delightful landscape, over a finely variegated country.

COLUMELLA, Lucius Jimus Moderatus, the most learned practical writer on agriculture among the ancients, born at Ca--liz, in Spam, hved about the middle of the first century, and wrote twelve books, which are still extant, De Re Rustica, one of which, on gardening, is in verse. He treats, in this work, of all branches of agriculture. He also wrote a book on the cultivation of trees. The best edition is by Gesner, in his collection Scriptores Rci Rustica, Lepsic, 1735, 2 vols. quarto.

COLUMN (columna, Lat.), in architecture;

was strongly tinctured. Of a great and a round pillar. In the earliest periods of the world, the column was merely the trunk of a tree, or its imitation in stone, used to support the roof. The parts of a complete column are its base, on which it rests, its body, called the shaft, and its head, called the capital. Columns are used to support the entablature of an order, which has also its proper division. (See Architecture and Order.) In the most ancient times, columns of wood were the most usual, as being the most easily wrought In countries like Egypt, where timber fit for construction is searce, and stone abun-•dant, the latter became the principal ma-\* terral for columns, and those of Egypt are remarkable for the beauty of their workmanship, and the durability of their materials. The Greeks used marble of the finest kind, with which their country abounded, for their columns; and other nations, the stone or material of their country. The Greeks properly considered the column as an essential part of the architecture of their temples, and never used it as a mere decoration. The manner of constructing the columns of all the orders rests upon similar principles. They are all divided hito three primary parts or divisions, the base, the shaft, and the capital, except the Dorie order, which has no base. The lowest or thickest part of the shaft is used by architects as the universal stale or start and whence all the measures which regulate and determine heights and projections are taken; and this standard or scale must be understood before any architectural design can be commenced. The innversal architectural scale is, and is called, a diameter, being the diameter of the lowest or largest part of the column; and, inhke the foot, inch or yard, is as various as the size of columns. By the diameter, of course, is meant that of the encle which forms the bottom of the column. Half of this diameter, or the length of the radius which forms the circle, is called a modul?, and is used, as well as the diameter, as a primary standard of mensuration, by some writers upon architecture. These measures of length are subdivided as follows, namely, the diameter into 60 parts, and the module into 30 parts, each part being the same in length. which are called minutes. Both mensurations are the same, only under different denominations; as, for instance, one airthor says a column, which always includes the base, shaft and capital, is six diameters, twelve minutes high, while another would say of the same column and its admeasurements, that it is twelve modules

and twelve minutes, both meaning the The Doric column relf-same duncusion. has no base. The lonic column has one peculiar to itself, called the Attic, which, with that of the Corinthian order, is described under the article Architecture, Grecian Style of. The shafts of the different orders differ in height, and even in various examples of the same order, as may be seen in the anticles Architecture and Order. The capitals are also as various. Columns are eather plain or fluted; and the flutes and manner of dividing them are different in the Doric and Counthian orders. The Jome flutes much resemble the Corinthian, and, in many instances, are exactly similar. Twisted, spiral and rusticated colmans, like those of Borroman, in various baildings in Rome, and the Baldacchino of 5t. Peter's, are in bad faste, and to be avoided. Columns are also often used for monuments, as well as for architectural supports; like the Trajan and Antonine columns in Rome, and that called the Monument, in London. There are also astronomical, columns, like that which Catharine de' Medici erected at the Halle au Blé, in Paris. The Romans had their columna bellica, which was near the ternple of Janus, and from when war was proclaimed by the consul easing a pivelin from it towneds de country of their enemy; also chronological columns, v.i. icon they inseribed historical events according to the order of time. They had also a lacted column, which was creefed in the vegetable market, and contained in its pedestal a receptacle for infants that were abandoned by their parents. (See Juven d., Satire vi. v. 601.) The legal column was one on which the ancients engraved their laws, the limitative or toundary column marked the boundary of a state or provrace; the manubial column was ornamented with troplies and spoils taken from the enemy, the rostral column with the prows (rostra) of the ships obtained in a sundar manner. The first column or this deescription was that which was creeted in the capitol, on the occasion of the naval victory which Cams Dudinis obtained over the Carthagamas. It is now on the balustrade of the grand staircase of the Campidogho. Augustus raised four, decorated with the prows of the vessels which were taken from Cleopatra. Two were also erected to the honor of Cams Memus, for a naval victory over the Latins and Antiates. The sepulchral column was elevated upon a schulchre or tomb, with an epitaph engraved upon its shaft. The triumphal column was erected by the Romans in

commemoration of a conqueror to whom had been decreed the honors of a triumph. The joints of the stones were concealed by crowns obtained by military conquests The columns of Trajan and Antonine, besides their specific objects, are also traumphal columns. The British parliament. when they voted the magnificent palace of Bleuhenn to the great duke of Mariborough, also crected a triumphal column in the park. On the four sides of the pedestal are inscribed descriptions of the victories of that great commander, and his stague is upon the abacits, supported by figures of captured enemies, and sur-rounded by trophics. The milliary column, or milliarium aureum, of Rome, was orig nally a column of white murble, which Augustus erected near the temple of Satum, in the forum, as a centre whence the account of the miles began in the scalenlation of distances from the city. This eglebrated column is still in existence, being placed on the stylobate in front of the Campidoglio, the modern capitol of Rome It is a short column, with a Tus can capital, and has a bail of bronze, as a symbol of the globe. It was called golden, either because it was once gilded all over, or at least the globe and ornamental ac-As a companion to it is a simda column, bearing on its sumunt a vase containing the sless of Trejan. Among the principal usulated commemorative or trainipled columns now remaining is Pompey's pillar, or column, at Alexandna, in Egypt Opinions have differed much as to she date of its erection, and to whose memory it was raised. Its style is that of the age of Diocletian and of the lower empire. Engravings and descriptions of this ancient monument may be found in the works of Denon, and other travellers in Egypt. It is of Theba. granute, of the Countlian order, and, according to the best authorities, measures 64 feet in the shaft, about 5 feet in the base, 10 feet in the pedestal, and from 10 to 11 in the capital. A Greek inscription was discovered by the British, who were there at the time of sir Ralph Abereronsbic, which dedicates it to the emperor Diocletian, under the government of the prefect Portus. The opinion sustained by its common name, that it was erected by Cresar to commemorate his victory over Pompey, has had respectable supporters Denon and some other writers have supposed it part of an immense building, of which they trace the rums adjoining. Is has been sometimes thought to comment orate the favors of Adman to this city,

and still more frequently those of Severus: while some writers ascribe its erection to Ptolemy Philadelphus, in memory of his queen Arsinoc; and others to Ptolemy Euergetes. The Trajan column is one of the most celebrated monuments of antiquity. Its height, including the pedestal and statue, is 132 feet. This monumental column was erected in the centre of the forum Trajani, and dedicated to the emperor Trajan for his decisive victory over the Dacians, as is testified by the inscription on the pedestal. It is of the Boric. order, and its shaft is constructed of 34 pieces of Greek marble, joined with cramps of bronze. For elegance of proportion, beauty of style, and for simplicity and dexterity of sculpture, it is the finest in the world. The figures on the pedestal are masterpieces of Roman art. It was formerly surmounted by a statue of Trajan, which has been succeeded by a statue of St. Peter. The column of the emperor Phocas is near the temple of Concord. It is of Greek marble, fluted, and of the Corinthan order, 4 feet diameter, and 54 feet high, including the pedestal. The Antonine column was erected by the Roman senate to the glory of Marcus Aurelius, for his victories over the Marcomanin, in the reign of Commodus. Aurelius afterwards -dedicated at to his father-in-law, Antoninus Pms. According to a rigid admeasurement, made by M de la Condamme, this column is 116 French feet in height, and 11 m diameter. It is built entirely of marble, and encircled with bassi rilievi, which form 20 spirals around its, shaft. It has been well illustrated by engravings and descriptions by Pietro Santi Bartoli. It is in every respect inferior to that of Trajan as a work of art, particularly in the style and execution of the sculptures. It was repaired, in 1589, by Fontana, under the pontificate of Sixtus V. who placed at colossal statue of St. Paul upon its sumunt. There is also in Rome another column bearing the same name, situated on the Monte Cittorio. Its shaft is of a single piece of Egyptian grainte, 45 feet in height, and 5 feet 8 mehes in diameter. pedestal is ornamented with bassi rdieri, representing the apotheosis of Antoninus and Faustina, and other events relating to the history of Rome. It was repaired by Lambertini. Prus VI removed the bassi rilievi to the Vatican. There is an engraving of it in the 5th volume of the Museo Pio-Clementino. On one of its sides it has the following inscription:-- "Divo Anto-NINO AVGUSTINO PIO ANTONINUS AUGUS-TVS ET VERVS AVGVSTVS FILIL." Till the

commencement of the 18th century, there were to be seen at Constantinople 2 insulated columns, ornamented with bassi ribievi, in the style of the Trajan column at One was erected in honor of Rome. Constantine, and the other of Arcadius or Theodosius. Of the latter there is nothing left but its granite base, the colitum having been destroyed by the Turks. It had been several times damaged by earthquakes, and they were fearful of its falling. The Constantine column was composed of 7 large cylindrical blocks of porphyry, and was originally surmounted by a statue of Constantine. After having been several times damaged by fire, it was repaired by the emperor Alexis Commenus, as is indicated by an inscription in Greek. Of modern columns, that called the Monument, at London, which was erected in commemoration of the great conflagration of 1666, is at once the loftiest, the best constructed, and the most beautiful. It is a Dorie fluted column, 202 feet high from the bottom of the pedestal, which is ornamented with bassi rilieri of Charles II and his court giving protection to the fallen city, and various inscriptions, to the top of the vase of flames, by which it is sur-mounted. There are, also, several smaller columns, but of beautiful proportions, in various parts of England, in imitation of the above, but mostly of the Greenan or pure Done order, as the Anglesea column, erected in commemoration of the battle of Waterloo, and the noble earl of that name, in the island of Anglesea; the column at Shrewsbury, erected in commemoration of the same event, and of another noble general, lord Hill; the Nelson columns, at Yarmouth and in Dubhn; the Wellington column, at Trim, in the county of Meath, Ireland, &c. To the above list, we may add the Washington monument, at Baltimore, on which a colossal statue of Washington has lately been placed. The ornaments of the monument. are not yet completed (February, 1830). The pillar is of the Grecian Doric order, and of very massive proportions stands on a grand base or zocle, and is surmounted by a circular pedestal, on which the statue rests. This base or zocle of the monument is 50 feet square, and 25 feet high; the column is 20 feet in diameter, and, with its sub-base, 130 eet high; the capital is 20 feet square. The statue is 15 feet high, and the whole height of the monument, from the pavement, including the statue, will be 176 feet. As it stands on a hill 100 feet high, this structure rises 276 feet above tide. It is con-

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structed of white marble, which is slightly variegated, and is a very conspicuous object to every one approaching the city, whether by land or water. The statue greatly increases its effect, and gives finish and beauty to the whole structure. A flight of steps, on each side of the grahd base, is to lead up to the doorways. A broad frieze is to run round the exterior of the grand base, with a series of civic wreaths, each encircling a star, to designate the states of the Umon. In the centre of the frieze, above the door-ways. are to be large marble tablets, inscribed with the name of Washington. Brouze inscriptions, commemorative of events in the revolution connected with the life of Washington, are to be placed on every front of the base. The base of the column above the great platform is proposed to be encircled with 13 colossal brouze smelds, emblematic of the federal umon: the faces of the shields to be ornamented with the arms of those states which formed the federal compact, divided by massive spears. The attitude given to file statue represents the great man to whom the monument is dedicated in the act of resigning his commission, and the authority with which he had been invested by his country, again into the hands of the people, having accomplished the great object of his appointment—the free-loin and independence of the Umon. The marble of which the statue is formed is of a very pure kind, free from years, and is a fine specimen of the native white formation which abounds in the neighborhood of Baltimore. The statue, the work of Mr. Causici, weighs 164 tons.

Column, in tactics , a deep, solid mass of troops, formed by placing several bodies of men behind cach other (sections, platoons, companies, squadrons, and even several battalions). The column is either an open or a close on (with intervals, or Juving the sections close behind each other): it may be formed either for marching or for attack. By means of columns, it is possible to march in places where it would be impracticable to move with unbroken lines. They also increase the force and steadmess of troops, both in attack and defence. The drawing up of the infantry in line is advisable, where there is no obstacle in the ground to prevent advancing in this order, or when the enemy is to be received with the fire of musketry, and where cannon-halls and grenades are more to be feared than caseshot and musketry. The order in mass is to be preferred where you have to move

in a broken or hilly country, where a charge is intended, in which physical force, given by the depth of the column, is necessary, and the fire of the enemy is to be avoided as much as possible (which, on account of the small breadth of the column, is comparatively ineffectual), and also where a charge, particularly of cave-alry, is apprehended. Though a cannonball, and still more a grenade, in the midst of the mass, causes a greater havoc, the probability of being hit is dmnnished, on account of the small front exposed. Ar objection to columns, founded on the difficulty of moving so dense a mass, and of changing it into a line, has been removed, m modern times, by the practice of making the columns consist of only one battalion, and by disposing these single battahons near each other in such a way as to support one another by their fire, instead of arranging them uselessly behind each other. By the usual way of forming the colunins towards the centre, these have received such a movability and facility of developement, that a line may be restored in two or three innutes. Almost all battles are fought, at present, by such small columns, which, when the order in line is judged more for the purpose, may be changel into lines, and which, besides, form the best squares for resistance against attacks of envalry, by presenting a front to all sides, and mute many other advantages. In the case of cavalry, also, at tack« may be made either in column or in line. The charge in close columns, which is in use periordarly with the French, is of the greatest effect when it succeeds: but where it fails, the whole body of assailants is exposed to annihilation, or to rout, as no support, no developement, nor or derly retreat, is possible. The attack with columns at some distance from each other has this advantage, that, if the first division fails, the subsequent ones may specced; moreover, the facility of mancenving is much greater. This mode of attack is particularly advisable in assault ing squares of infantry. Marching and nghting in lines, however, are the modes 🚚 usually pracused by cavalry.-Columnroads are such roads as may be passed with all kinds of arms: when the ordinary road is ruined, they are laid out across the fields, and marked by poles with straw (jalons).

Costs (camb, Saxon); an instrument to separate and adjust the hair, too well known to need description. We have no certain authority, from either busts or medals, that either the Greek of the Etrus

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can women used this useful and ornamental appendage to their hair; although, in most of them, it is carefully and gracefully arranged. Nor in the articles that have been disinterred at Volterra and other Etrusean cities, where abundance of utensils and instruments of the female toilet have been found, has there been a single comb discovered. There is, therefore, no authority, with which we are at present acquainted, to inform us from whom the Romans borrowed this article of the toilet. Many of their sepulchral, inscriptions are dedicated to their dressing maids (ornatrices). It is probable that the combs of the Romans were of ivory, box; gold, and silver; but, according to Guasco, they were also of iron and of bronze. In the work of that author, Delle Ornatrici, there are several representations of aneient Roman combs. One, in particular, at page 63, that was in the museum Settala, at Milan, is a long one of box, of which the handle is overlaid with ivory, and appears to have been ornamented with a small meander in gold. two rows of fine teeth, deheately wrought and well proportioned. Canova and other modern sculptors have made great use of the comb in their female busts, to which they add a grace and elegance unknown to those of the ancients.

denotes a formal trial, boyween two chainpions, of some doubtful cause or quarrel, by the sword or batoon. This barbarous way of deciding controversies was, in the anddle ages, very common, not only m crimmal, but also in civil causes. The form and ceremony of the combat are described in the grand contumier of Normandy. The accuser first swore to the truth of his accusation; the accused gave . him the be; upon which he threw down a pledge of buttle, and the parties werecommitted to prison till the day of combat. The legal combat belongs to the same class of absordines as the formal trial of witches. (See Duel and Champion.)

COMBINATION, in mathematics, is the variation or alteration of any number of figures, letters, colors, sounds, &c., in all the different manners possible. The parts combined are called elements.—The doctrine of combination is that branch of mathematics which teaches the results arising from all possible combinations, and gives rules respecting them.—Combinatory analysis is the application of the doctrine of combination to analysis, and constitutes a branch of science often very involved. A system of characters is appropriated to

this purpose. Hindenburg, of Leipac, in: 1778, gave it the character of an independent science; and it has been of inportant service in relation to the higher branches of mathematics. (See Weingärtner's Lehrbuch der combinatorischen Analysis, Leipsic, 1801, 2 vols.) Permutations are those combinations in which, each time, all the elements are used, and the object is to determine how often they change their place, for instance, abcd, acbd, bdac, &c. The number of possible changes or combinations is found by multiplying the terms 1, 2, 3, &c. continually into each other; thus,  $2 \times 3 = 6$ ;  $6 \times 4$  = 24;  $24 \times 5 = 120$ , &c. Thus the combinations of five quantities amount to 120. The changes that may be rung on twelve bells amount to 479,001,600; and the twenty-four letters of the alphabet admt of 62,044,840,173,323,943,936,000 changes or combinations.

Combustion. It is not easy to give a correct definition, or to assign a general cause, of this familiar phenomenon. It may, however, be described as the result of the combination of two or more bodies, attended with a disengagement of heat and light. This description distinguishes combustion from ignition, which is merely the result of an elevation of the temperature, without any chemical combination. COMBAT, III law, or SINGLE COMBAT, "I'me was formerly considered as an element, which had the power of converting certain bodies into its own nature; but the progress of chemical science soon showed the error of this notion. 'Stahl's celebrated theory was founded on the hypothesis of the existence of a substance which he called phlogiston. Every combustible body was supposed to contain this substance, which was disengaged by combustion; the loss of the phlogiston was the cause of the residmm being meombistible. The heat and light were attributed to the violent agitation of the phlogiston at the moment of its disengagement. The discoveries of Black and Priestley opened the way to the system of Lavorsier, which, in 1785, entirely supplanted the theory of Stahl. During the conversion of solids into fluids, and of fluids into vapors, there is a considerable absorption of heat: when, on the contrary, vapors and liquids are restored to the fluid and solid form, the heat which they contain is evolved, and passes from the latent to the sensible state. (See Caloric.) These views were assumed by Lavoisier as the basis of his theory. Oxygen gas was considered as a compound of a pecuhar basis, united to the matter of light and

ing the combustion, the basis, combining with the combustible, augmented its weight and changed its properties; while the imponderable elements of the galight and heat-were developed in the form of flame. But facts prove this theory incorrect. In the first place, all the phenomena of combustion take place, in many cases, without the presence of oxygen. In the second place, there are many cases in which oxygen unites with bodies, without the evolution of light and heat, as during the change of some metals on exposure to the air. And, further, there are many instances in which combustion takes place not only without condensation, but where gaseous matter is actually produced from solid matter, as in the inflammation of gunpowder. Besides, the evolution of light, if it were derived from the gas, should be proportional to the quantity solidified, whereas it depends chiefly on the combustible. The first of these objections to Lavoisier's theory, which is yet generally received, has been partly removed by modifying the definition so as to extend it to several other bodies, hence called supporters of combustion (See Chemical Classification, and Nomenclature, vol. in. p. 127.) The definition which we gaming of this article is merely a description. The question mises, Whence come the light and heat? They are generally referred to the condensation which is almost always a necessary consequence of a chemical combination; but we have already seen that, in some cases, they are produced where the component parts actually pass from a solid to a gascous state. It seems probable, in the present state of our knowledge, that they may be attributed to the disengagement of the electric fluid. "In every chemical combination," says Berzehus, "there is a neuralization of opposite electricities, and this neutralization produces the heat and light in the same manner as it does in the Leyden par or the galvanie battery." But to this at may be objected, that, if electricity were the cause of the disengagement of the heat and light, they would always bear a fixed proportion to each other. This is not the case; the combustion of oxygen and hydrogen disengages a very great quantay of calone, but very little light; that of results. There is, then, no theory of complain all the encumstances of this phenom-semblance to a tuft or lock of hair. Of

heat, and combustion as the combination enon. If there be any one general cause, it of oxygen with the burning body. Dur- must be one which, like affinity, is modified by the nature of the agents and the peculiar circumstances of their mutual action.

COMEDY. (See Drama.)

COMENIUS, John Amos, a benefactor of mankind, by the improvements which he introduced into education, was born March 28, 1592, in the village of Comna, near Brumau, in Moravia; hence the name which he assumed: his real one is not known. His parents, belonging to the Moravian denomination, had him educated nt Herborn. In 1616, he received an appointment as teacher, in Fulnek, which, in 1618, was plundered by the Spinnards Comenius lost his papers, and all which he possessed, and fied to Poland, where, in 1632, he was elected bishop of the Mo- . ravian and Bohemian Brethren in Lissa In 1631, he published, at Lissa, his Janue Linguarum rescrata, a work which was translated, within 26 years, into 12 European languages, also into Persian, Arabian and Mongolian. In this, he laid down a new system for teaching languages to children by the use of visible signs, in order to facilitate the learning of words His Orbis pictus, or the Visible World, was first published, in 1659, at Nuremberg. In 1641, he was invited to England, in order to introduce a better organization into the have given of this phenomenon at the be- eschools, but, as the civil war prevented the accomplishment of this plan, he went to Sweden, where the chancellor Oxenstiere because his pation. In 1656, he returned to Lissa, where he once more lost all his books and manuscripts on the burning of the town after the retreat of Charles X Comernis died at Amsterdam, Oct. 15. In the latter part of his life, he gave banself up to religious dicums, after the fashion of that time, and revered Bourignos-(q. v.) as a prophetess. Adehing gives the number of his works as 92, but there are only 54 now extant.

Compsorks (Ital.; asabove, or asbefore), an allusion to the manner of performing some former passage, the style of which performance has been already denoted.

Come say (Ital.; as it stands); an expression implying that the performer is not to embellish the passage with any additions of his own.

COMETS. Of natural appearances, there are few that have been regarded with more superstitions apprehensions than those bodies which occasionally appear in phosphorus and oxygon produces opposite the sky, lummous, like the stars, but generally distinguished from these by a tail, bustion, at present received, which will ex- or train of fainter light, bearing some re-

this, the Latin name is coma, and in consequence, these bodies are called comets. to distinguish them from the other luminaries, which, whether near or remote, apparently fixed or movable, have not this trans-like accompaniment. Comets are one of the three classes into which astronomers divide those celestial bodies that adorn the sky during the night. The stars, which retain their relative positions with regard to each other, and are at so great distances from the earth, that no means or instruments latherto invented can measure them, are one class,-and a class not apparently connected with our sun, or deriving light or heat from that lummary. The planets, which change their relative positions among the stars, and of which our earth is one, form the second class. They are solid bodies, and not luminous in themselves, but shine merely by reflecting the light of the sun. The masses of the planets, their magnituder, and their motions, have been all determined with the greatest accuracy; and the place that any one of them will occupy at any proposed point of time, can be calculated with the greatest ease, by any one acquainted with practical astronomy. The planets are, in their monons, governed by one umform law. In the early ages, the planets were held to have certain influences upole nichaduals and nations. The comets, which are more singular in their form, and more caned in the times of their appearance, were still better adapted for superstitious purposes, and, accordingly, we find that their visits have been attempted to be connected with the great, more especially the calamitous, events of nations. The appearance of a comet is, however, no more a prodigy, and has no more influonce upon the fate of men or of nations, than the appearance of the moon, or of a deciduous leaf upon a tree in spring. They , are so distant, and either their motions are so rapid, or their substance is so rare, that none of them have been found to have any material action upon such of the planets as they have come near, although the planets have had a considerable influ-\*\* ence upon them. What the comets are, or what purposes they serve in the economy of creation, we do not know. As far as observation has gone, they are subject to the same laws as the planets, revolving about the sun in orbits or paths, with this difference, that their orbits are much more eccentric, or differ much more from circles, than the orbits of the planets; and thus, while they approach much nearer to the

sun at one time of their revolutions, they recede correspondingly farther from it at another. The time since men had rational opinious on the subject has, however, been too short for verifying, by observation, the theory as applicable to the whole, or even the greater number of these bodies that have, from time to time, made their appearance. Tycho Brabe was the first who expressed a decidedly rational opinion on the subject of cornets. Finding, by careful observation, that the comet of 1577 had no diurnal parallax, which he could detect,-that is, that its place, when viewed from the surface of the earth, was not different from what it would have been if viewed from the centre,-he properly concluded that its distance from the earth must be greater than that of the moon, in which this parallax was apparent to him. This was one step; and it was an important one: it removed comets to such a, distance from the earth, that their use could not well be supposed to be for it, or their influence upon it very great. The general law of the motion of bodiesin free space, as well as his own particular observations on the comet of 1680, led Newton to conclude that the orbits of the councts must, like those of the planets, be ellipses, having the sun mone focus, but far more eccentric, and having their aphelions, or greatest distances from the sun, far remote in the regions of space. The idea thus thrown out by Newton was taken up by Dr. Halley, who collated the observations which had been made of all the twenty-four comets, of which nonce had been taken previous to 1680. The results were abundantly curious; with but few exceptions, they had passed within less than the earth's shortest distance from the sun; some of them within less than one third of it; and the average about one half. Out of the number, too, nearly two thirds had had their motions retrograde, or moved in the opposite way to the planets. While Halley was engaged on these comparisons and deductions, the cornet of 1682 made its appearance, and he set about observing it with great care, in order to determine the elements of its orbit. Having done so, he found that there was a wonderful resemblance between it and three other comets that he found recorded—the comets of 1456, of 1531, and of 1697. The times of the appearance of these comets had been at very nearly regular intervals,—at, least, the differences had been only fractional parts of a year,—the average period being between 75 and 76 years. Their

distances from the sun, when in perihelion, or nearest to that luminary, had been also nearly the same, being nearly six tenths of that of the earth, and not varying more than one sixtieth from each other. inclination of their orbits to that of the earth had also been nearly the same, between 17° and 18°; and their motions had all been retrograde. Putting them together, Dr. Halley concluded, that the comets of 1456, 1531, 1607, and 1682, were re-appearances of one and the same comet, which revolved in an elliptic orbit round the sun, performing its circuit in a period varying from a little more than 76 years to a little less than 75; or having, as far as the observation had been carried, a variation of about 15 months in the absolute duration of its year, incasured according to that of the earth. For this variation in the time of its revolution, Dr. Halley accounted upon the supposition that the form of its orbit had been altered by the attraction of the remote planets, Jupiter and Saturn, as it passed near to them; and thence he concluded, that the period of its next appearance would be lengthened, but that it would certainly re-appear in 1757 or 1758. Its doing so was, of course, the fact that was to be decisive of the orbits of comets, and that they were regular and permanent bodies, obeying the general laws of matter. Halley did not live to see the verification of his prediction; he died in the year 1742, at the advanced age of 81. Soon after his death, Clarault, D'Alembert and Euler, three of the most emment mathematicians of Europe, set about the solution of what is 'called "the problem of the three bodies;" 'that is, to determine the paths described by three bodies, projected from three given points, in given directions, and with given velocities, their gravitating forces being directly as their quantities of matter. tances The object of this problem is to find the disturbing effects that the bodies composing the solar system have upon each other; and it applies to comets, when within the limits of planetary action, as well as to the planets themselves. After some errors, into which all the three had been led, and which gave a result that seemed to overturn the whole doctrine of gravitation, Claurault succeeded in obtaining an approximate solution, which agreed with and confirmed that theory. Having done so, he applied it to the calculation of the disturbing influence of Jupiter and Saturn, which Halley had predicted would retard the comet of 1682, in its re-appear-

ance about 1758. The results of Clairault's calculations were, that the comer would be retarded 100 days by the attraction of Saturn, and 518 days by that of Jupiter, so that it would not come to the perihelion, or point of its orbit nearest the sun, till the 13th of April, 1759. Clairault, however, fixed certain limits, within which Ins calculations might probably be erroneous. It was eventually found that the difference between calculation and observation was less than that which he as-'signed. Clairault read his investigations to the academy of sciences in November, '1758; and, in little more than a month afterwards, the comet made its appearance; and it reached its perihelion on the 13th of March, in the following year, being 30 days earlier than he had calculated Subsequent calculations enabled him to reduce the error to 19 days; and, though the calculations of the disturbing forces were only approximations, enough had been done to prove the return, and determine the orbit of one comet, and give every reason for concluding that all comets, being bodies of the same class, are J subject to the same general laws as the planets, and only vary from each other ar the proportion and magnitude of their orbits. There was one further confirma-tion. Clarault had calculated that the node of the comet's orbit, or the point, in which it cut the plane of the orbit of the earth, would advance 27 '33' in absolute space, or 1° 29 more than the equinoctial points, the precession of which, in the time of the comet's revolution, was 1° 4'; and observation gave exactly the same result; so that the only difficulty that remained in the doctrine of comets was in the esumation of the disturbances to which they are exposed from the other bodies of the system, more especially in the parts of of their orbits most remote from the sup, and inversely as the squares of their dis- , where their motions are comparatively Along with the period of this comet, and its perihelion distance, the magnitude and form of its path were. known. Estimating the mean distance of the earth from the sun at 95,000,000 nules, the mean distance of the cornet is 1,705,250,000 miles; its greatest distance from the sun, 3,355,400,000; its least distance, 55,100,000; and the transverse, or largest diameter of its orbit, 3,410,500,000. Therefore, though its aphelion distance be great, its mean distance is less than that of Herschel; and, great as is the aphelion distance, it is but a very trifling fraction less than one five thousandth part of that distance from the sun, nearer than which

the very nearest of the fixed stars cannot be situated; and, as the determination of their distance is negative and not positive, -a distance within which they cannot be, and not one at which they actually are,the nearest of them may be at twice or ten muces that distance. The comet of ' · 1759 is, therefore, a body belonging to the solar system, and quite without the attraction of any body which does not belong to that system; and, as this is determined of one comet, analogy points it out as being the case with them all.—Besides the cornet of 1759, of which there have been four authenticated returns, and which may be expected again about 1833, there are two others, of which something like a return has been traced at long intervals. One of these passed its perihelion at about Bo'clock on the morning of the 6th of July, 1264, reckoning mean time at Greenwich; and again, at a little past 8 o'clock, on the evening of the 21st of April, 1556. Thus its period is about 202 years, and it may be expected in 1848. The perihelion distance however, of this comet, which was more than half that of the earth, in 1264, had dnmmshed an eighth part by 1556; and, as this must have caused a great elongation of its orbit, and as, from the length of its period, it must go far into the regions of space, there is , no knowing how both the time of its revolution, and the form and position of its orbit, may have been altered.—The other comet, in the elements of whose orbit there is a similarity, from which its Identity might be with probability inferred, appeared in 1582, and again in 1661, having thus a period of about 129 years. The return of that comet should, therefore, have been about 1790. In that year, three comets made their appearance; but neither of them resembled the one of 1661. Two of them moved in the opposite direction; and the remaining one was more than twice the distance from the sun in its perihelion, and its orbit at nearly double the angle with that of the earth.—The comet denominated Encke's comet, which has engrossed the public mind generally, and the scientific world in particular, has justly claimed and received the careful attention of astronomers, since its appearance in 1818 engaged professor Encke to consider the elements of its orbit. He was enabled to identify it with a cornet described by Messrs. Mechain and Messier in 1786, in the constellation Aquarius; also with a comet discovered in 1795, by Miss Herschel, in the constellation Cycnus; and with the comet in 1805. The

investigation of the diligent professor enabled him to foretell its re-appearance in 1822, and to state the probability of its not being observable in our climate. This an-ticipation was realized by its discovery in New South Wales, in the observatory of the governor, sir Thomas Brisbane, June 2, 1822; and the accurate observations of Mr. Rumker, who discovered it. afforded Encke the means of reconsidering the true elements of its orbit, and with additional confidence computing its return for 1825. This occurred as was expected. . The fresh data afforded by that return were carefully collated by the professor. It was observed again on October 30, 1828. This comet affords particular interest to the mind of the astronomer, though it does not offer a splendid object to his eye. Its orbit is an ellipse of comparatively small drawnsions, wholly within the orbit of Jupiter: its period is about ... three years and three tenths-a much shorter period than has litherto appeared to comprise the revolution of any other comet, with the exception of one seen in 1770, which did not satisfy, as far as observation has been able to show, the prediction of the period of five years and a half, which was attributed to it. In the opinion of Encke and other astronomers, this comet may afford an opportunity of proving that the heavens oppose a resisting medium to the motion of bodies. The subject has been discussed in the Transactions of the astronomical society of London, by the able mathematician Massott; and that gentleman offers reasons for con sidering comets capable of affording a . demonstration of a resisting medium in the heavens, though planets may give no and cation of it.—Another comet, which encourages the anticipation of much astronomical gratification, is one which Biela discovered, Feb. 27, 1826, and which was afterwards seen by Gambart and others. It seems to possess claims to the attention of astronomers similar to that of Encke. it being conceived to revolve about the sun in about six years and seven tenths, and to be the same as the comet which appeared in 1772, and that which appeared in 1806. Encke's comet was in its perihelion, by computation, Jan. 10, 1829.— The comet of 1770, to which allusion has been made, would lead us to conclude that we are still ignorant of many of the causes by which the form of the orbits of comets, and the times of their revolution and return, may be disturbed. That comet moved almost in the plane of the earth's orbit, having an inclination of only about

a degree and a half; it had been observed served from 1771 to 1780 were all direct. with great care; and the result of the ob-, —Being quite ignorant both of the size of servations was, that it should return about the compets, and their quantities of matter, servations was, that it should return about every five years and a half. Instead of going out of the system, as may be presumed to be the case with those comets that have long periods and eccentric orbits, its greatest distance could not be much greater than that of Jupiter, while its mean distance from the sun was not much more than three times the perihelion distance of the earth. No comet, at all answering to that one, has, however, been again discovered; and therefore the conclusion is, that there are, within the system itself, causes which can completely alter the motions of these hodies; but what those causes are, other than the attraction of the planets, has not yet been ascertained. One remarkable difference between the comets and the planets is in the angles which their orbits make with that of the earth. Leaving out the small planets that have recently been discovered, all the others are contained within a zone extending only 72 on each side of the earth's orbit; and, with the exception of Mercury (by far the smallest of the old planets), they are within half that space. But the orbits of the comets are at all possible angles; and 'the number mereases with the angle, so that they approximate to an equal distribution, in all directions, round the sun as a centre. The numbers that have been observed are as follows:--Under 10° of inclination, 8; under 20°, 19; under 30°, 26; under 40°, 37; under 50°, 47; under 60°, 63; under 70°, 79; under 80°, 88; and under 90°, about 100. Thus by far the greater number of the comets have their paths out of the direction of those of the planets; and hence, though they be bodies of such consistency as that their collision with the planets would produce serious consequences, there is but little chance that such collision can take place. The comets that have been observed have made their passages through very different parts of the solar system: 24 have passed within the orbit of Mercury; 47 within that of Venus; 58 within that of the Earth; 73 within that of Mars; and the whole within that of Jupiter. Of a hundred, or thereabouts, mentioned by Lalande, about one half have moved from west to east, in the same direction as the planets, and the other half in the opposite direction. The direct and retrograde ones do not appear to follow each other according to any law that has been discovered. From 1299 to 1532, all that are mentioned were retrograde; and five that were ob-

we can form no conclusion as to their effects, even upon the positions of the planets. Hitherto, their unfluence, if anything, has been very small; for, within the limits that must be allowed for error, even in the best tables that are calculated upon an approximation, the whole of the irregularities are explainable upon the hypothesis of planetary disturbance alone; and the system appears to have gone on just as if there had been no comets in at. That the comets are formed of matter of some sort or other we know, from the dense and opaque appearance of their nucleus, as well as from the action of the planets upon them; but, as their action upon the planets has not been great, or even perceptible, we are led to the conclusion that they are not bodies of the same density or magnitude as even the. smallest and rarest of the planets. When a comet is viewed through a telescope of considerable power, there appears a dense nucleus in the centre of the luminous and apparently vaporous matter, of which the external parts are composed; and the opacity of this nucleus varies in different comets. On its first appearance, and again when it recedes, the luminous part of the comet is faint, and does not extend far . from the nucleus; but, as it moves on towards the periltelion, the brightness increases, and the luminous matter lengthens into a train, which, in some cases, has extended across a fourth of the entire cucumference of the heavens. But, though the general fact of the increased brightness of comets, and length of their tails, with their approach to the sun, and the consequent inclination of their motion, has been established, the observations have not been umform or minute enough for proving what proportion the increase of brightness bears to the mercase of the velocity, and the diminition of the distance from the sun. No doubt, all the comets of which there are well-authenticated accounts, of great brightness and length of tail, have passed near the sun in their, perihelion. Thus the comet of 1769, which was not a fifth of the carth's perihehon distance from the sun, had a tail of 60° m length, as seen at Paris; while that of 1750, which was more than half the earth's perihelion distance distant, had a train of only 2° or 3°. The length of the tail varies, however, not only with the time at which it is observed, but with the place of observation-a difference prob-

ably depending on the difference of clear-Cadiz, and 97° at Bourbon. Generally speaking, they appear to be brighter and . larger when seen at sea than on land, and in the warmer regions than in those nearer the poles. When the superstitious inhabitants of the earth, had vanished before the light of philosophy, that light was in some danger of giving rise to fear of another sort—fear of physical harm to the earth itself, by the collision of some comet that might cross its path. We have no evidence, however, that such a collision ever did happen, either with the earth or with any other planet; and we have not absolutely correct means of so calculating the place of a comet as to be able to say with certainty that, on a given day, during a given month, or even during a given year, it shall cross the orbit of a The motion of the earth in its orbit is, in round numbers, more than a million and a half of miles in a day; and as Clairault, with all his care, did not come nearer the truth than 19 days, though the collision of a comet and the earth should be calculated from any known data, the earth nught, in fact, be, at the time, far enough from the comet. Indeed, though the fact of the return of two cornets be established, namely, Halley's and Encke's, and the return of every one, if not affected by physical causes that lie beyond the limits of our present knowledge, has been rendered exceedingly probable, yet we can observe them for so short a portion of their courses, and these seem so very apt to be altered, that we ought not to speak of them with anything like the cortainty with which we speak of the , planets. As far as we have been able to examine them, they appear to obey the same laws as the other distinct masses that make up the known part of the sys-tem of the universe. Beyond this we know nothing of their nature; and as for their effects, moral or physical, we need give ourselver no trouble about them, for there is not a trace of the existence of such effects upon any authentic record.— Respecting the hypotheses relating to the structure of comets, and particularly to The German, in a pleasant state of mind, their tail, professor Fischer, of Berlin, has says he feels gemüthlich, or, of a person, er given valuable information in Bode's As- ist ein gemüthlicher Mensch. The Ameri-VOL. MII. - 31

- 1

iselies Jahrbuck (Autronomical Yes ness and purity in the air. The tail of book), 1623, p. 90 ... See, also, the Franch. the comet of 1759 was 250 long, as meas - edition of Schubert's Astronomy, Peters ared at Montpellier, in the south of France, burg, 1822; vol. 2; p. 510). To feath their and considerably more than that as meas—malhematical relations, see Notwilks Minured at the Isle of Bourbon, in the Indian thodas pour la Détermination des Graites ocean. That of 1769 was 60° at Paris, 70° des Comètes, by Legendre (Paris, 1806, at Boulogne, 90° between Teneriffe and 4to.); and Olbers New Methods die Bahn eines Kometen aus eigner Beobachtung zu berechnen (Wolman, 1797). La Place's La Place's Théorie du Mouvement et de la Figure des Planètes et des Comètes has become rare but Biot, in the Additions to the third book fear of comets, as portending harm to the of his Astronomy, p. 185, extracts the part. relating to the theory of comets entirely. from it.

> COMPORT, POINT. (See Point Comfort.): COMFORTABLE; a very expressive word among the English, and people of English descent. It is also found even inrecent French publications, probably carried to Paris by the innumerable English who visit the capital of France. Eve-4 ry nation has not only certain words. which cannot be rendered precisely by any terms in other languages, but also certain ideas growing out of its customs, wants, &c., which do not exist with other nations, and which are the real cause of this peculiar significance of particular words. Such a word is comfortable, which signifies more than a mere physical feeling of gratification. In fact, it has something of the same indefinable and untranslatable character with the word home-a word which expresses a vast deal of feeling, of a faithful and tender attachment. I comfortable home is an expression, of which it would be impossible to approach to a translation, in some other languages, for mstance, in Italian; as an Italian finds his enjoyment in the open air in his lovely. climate, and has little regard for the pleasures of home. Many circumstances may have cooperated to produce, among the English, their love of comfort, and the means for ensuring a which we find in their houses. In fact, the comforts of an English dwelling surpass every thing of the kind among other nations. We would the kind among other nations. confine our observation to the dwelling, because, as respects the whole manner of living, the degree of enjoyment is certainly much greater in France. It is always highly interesting to study those expressions by which a nation describes its habitual likings or dislikings, because they disclose, at once, the general disposition of the people. Such a one is comfortable.

renchman, to express great aversion, says, in change. The Italian doles for mente (sweet idling) is very characteristic of the disposition of the nation. Not only nations, but also ages, have their peculiar expressions, which are highly interesting.

Commes, Philippe de (seigneur d'Argenton), born, 1445, at the castle of Comines, near Menin, in Flanders, passed his youth at the court of the dukes of Burgundy, Philip the Good and Charles! the Bold. He enjoyed the confidence of the latter, and contributed essentially to his reconciliation with Louis XI. conducted other negotiations with equal sagacity, and, in 1472, entered the service of Louis XI, probably on account of the rush and violent character of Charles, and induced by the promises of Louis, who loaded him with marks of favor. After the death of Charles the Bold, Louis took possession of the duchy of Burgundy, sent Comines there, and, soon after, appointed him ambassador to Florence, where, during his year's residence, the conspiracy of the Pazzi broke out and failed. Comines displayed, on this occasion, the greatest activity in the cause of the Medici. He was then sent by Louis to Savoy, for the purpose of seizing the young duke Philibert, and of placing him entirely under the guardianship of the king his uncle. In 1483, Louis XI died. Under the following reign, Comines did not empy the same favor. Under the regency, he was made a member of the council, and took part with the princes in their plots against the mild and wise government of Anne de Beaujeu. He was involved in all the intrigues of the duke of Orleans, and was intimately connected with the old constable Jean de Bourbon. A conspiracy, in which he was engaged, having been discovered, he was confined eight mouths in an iron cage at Loches. He was afterwards tried before the parliament in 1488, and pronounced guilty of having an understanding with several rebels, and" of other crimes. By the sentence passed upon him, which seems not to have been executed, he was exiled for 10 years to one of his estates, and the fourth part of his fortune was confiscated. Charles VIII employed him in several negotiations in Italy; but this monarch was too wavering and imprudent; the advice of Comines was little regarded, and he received no reward but reproaches and dissatisfaction. Under Louis XII, he seems not to have

COMEON PARLE COMITIA.

Praise of a person, says, "He is an laken an active part in affairs. He died at sing man." An increasing and Argenton, 1509. His Memoirs (most componently is his ideal. The plete edition, London, 1747, 4 vols. 4to.) 医环状性腹部 化性压 are valuable contributions to the history of the time. He relates, in them, the events which occurred during his life, and in most of which he had an active share, with great veracity, in lively, natural language, and displays everywhere a correct judgment, acute observation, and a prefound knowledge of men and things.

> Comitia, with the Romans; the assemblics of the people, in which the public business was transacted, and measures taken in conformity with the will of the majority. They existed even under the kings. In the time of the republic, they were convoked by the consule; in their absence, often by the dictator, the tribunes, and, in extraordinary cases, even by the pontifer maximus. Their chief objects were, the choice of persons to fill the highest offices, legislation, the making of war and peace, and the punishment of crimes against the state. For the first purpose, they were assembled in the campus Martius; for the others, in the forum, capitol, or the comitium. The emperors retained these assemblies for the seke of appearance, but used them only as instruments for the accomplishment of their purposes. From the division of the Roman people into centuries, curiee and tribes, the countin were distinguished into the comilid centuriala, curiata and tributa. The most important were the comitia centuriata, in which the people voted by centuries. They could be held only on certain days. Seventeen days before, per trinundinum, the people were called together by an edict. On the day of the comitta itself, the presiding magistrate, with an augur, went into a tent before the city, in order to observe the auspices. If the augur declared them unexceptionable, the comitia was held; if not, it was postponed to another day. Before sunrise and after sunset, no business was transacted in the comitia. The presiding magistrate, on his curule chair, opened the assembly by a prayer, which he repeated after the words of the augur. Then the subject of deliberation was communicated to the people, who afterwards separated into tribes and centuries In earlier times, first the equites, then the centuries of the first class, &c., were called upon to vote. In later times, lots were. cast for the order of voting. The opinion of the century which first voted was, usually followed by all the rest. In the earliest times, every century voted verbal.

ly; in later trines, by tablets. What was the vote of this century. The comitia. was interrupted if any one in the assemhly was attacked by a fit of epilepsy (which was called, for this reason, morbus . comitialis), or if a tribune of the people pronounced his veto, and under some other circumstances.

COMMANDERY, OF COMMANDRY, among several orders of knights, denotes a certain district, under the control of a member of the order, who received a part of the income thence arising, for his own use, and accounted for the rest. There are strict and regular commanderies, obtained by merit or in order, and others arc, of grace and favor, bestowed by the grand master. 'There are also commanderies for the religious, in the orders of St. Bernard and St. Anthony.

Commercia, Jerome, of Douay, a learned printer in Heidelberg, who died in 1598, was distinguished by his excellent editions of Greek and Latin classics. His emblem is a figure of Truth, and, on many edituons, the words Ex Officina Sanct. An-

`dreana.

COMMELIN, John and Caspar, uncle and nephew; learned botanists in Amsterdam. The former died in 1692, his nephew in

Commutan, Issue, born 1598, in Amstordam, was a historian, among whose works, the history and description of Amsterdam is still much valued. He died in 1676, at Amsterdam.

COMMENCEMENT. In the colleges of .50 U. States, this term denotes the day when the students commence bachclors of arts. In Cambridge, England, it signifies the day when masters of arts and doctors complete their degrees.

Commensurable; among geometricians, an appellation given to such quantities or magnitudes as can be measured Commensurable numbers, whether integers or fractions, are such as can be measured or divided by some other number, without any remainder: such are 12 and 18, as being measured by 6 or 3.

This em-COMMERCE OF THE WORLD, braces the whole subject of the traffic and intercourse of nations, and shows how . mutual wants, occasioning the exchange of natural riches for the creations of art, unite savage nations with civilized, and spread moral and social cultivation over the earth. In former times, commerce subdued the steppes of Scythia and the deserts of

Lines, and it is now clearing tway fire primitive forests of America, and draining concluded, in each century, by the ma-primitive forests of America, and draining jority, was proclaimed, by the herald, as the waters of America, and draining years, it has pervaided the interior of the "ancient" world; for centuries it has had its path on the mighty ocean; and, of late, it has studied how to cut through the isthmus of Darien, and to break through the ice of the poles. In the history of the nations, it is a perpetual Arronautic expedition, and, from the fift period of commerce down to our own times as Colchis has been India. The limits of our work do not allow us to exhibit the progress of commerce in ancient times. For this we refer to Heeren's Ideen über Handel und Politik der Alten Welt (Ideas on the Commerce and Politics of the Ancient World),. 1805 (see Hecren), and shall merely give a cursory survey of the principal commercial nations of modern times.

I. Europe, since the conquest of Tyre by Alexander, has been in possession of the commerce of the world, and has secured it by its colonial system (see Colony), founded by Henry the Navigator (q. v.), by means of which it exercises the monopoly of colonial commodities. this we understand the productions of the planting, commercial and mining colomes; those of the last, however, only in part, for the precious metals and stones can hardly be designated by that name. This is also true of the productions of the\_ colonies more strictly agricultural: spices, East India goods of all kinds, dye-woods and calmet-woods, drugs, cotton, and especially coffee, sugar, rice, tea, &c., are properly understood by this term. The East Indies furnish chiefly cotton, sugar, coffee, rice, fabrics of various kinds, spices, and tea (from China); the West Indies, cocoa, coffee, sugar and cotton; South America, the precious stones and metals, dye-woods, cabinet-woods, drugs, &c. The consumption of these articles, which was formerly possible onby one and the same common measure.— . ly for the rich, has increased immensely since the ocean became the highway for trade with the East Indies and America, in the course of the 15th century, and, more especially, since the English and Dutch assumed the first station among the colonial nations of Europe, in the beginning of the 18th century. Instead of being, as before, mere objects of luxury for the higher ranks, colonial goods became necessary articles even for the powest classes of Europe; and an entire revolution was produced in the civil and politi-cal condition of that portion of the world. Commerce thus acquired an incompara-

by higher importance, and a more gene. which was, by this mons, increased in body of men, spread over the whole wants, thus increasing the productiveness cultivated world, and unimated by one purpose to maintain commerce; and, even among belligerent nations, the governments endeavored in vain utterly to abolish the mutual dealings of merchants. Thus, as the intercourse of nations became more lively, the exchange of ideas was promoted, men's views became enlarged, a nities, and formed of the nations of Eucrope, as it were, one great, civilized family. Equal results were produced by the increased importance of the colonial powers (in late times, the two maritime states of England and Holland, in particular), arising from the increasing consumption of colonial goods. For them, and, indeed, though in an inferior degree, for the other colonial powers of Europe, the trade in the productions of the colonies was an important source of wealth and power. Their great political importance has exercised an extensive influence on the whole political condition of Europe. England, in particular, has become continually more powerful by its extensive trade. It was therefore in the natural course of things, that, when the immense power of France was developed by the revolution, and that country, under Napoleon, strove for predominance on the European continent, the greatest struggle should take place between France and England, a consequence of which was the continental system (q. v.) of Napoleon, who declared his purpose to be, to free Europe from the tribute which it was obliged to pay to England for the colonial goods which it received from her. England, deeming it absolutely essential to her interests to prevent the catablishment of a universal monarchy on the continent, spared no exertion to procure the restoration of the former order of things, so that she might have a free intercourse with the continental ports. tween the two countries, the fact deserves to be stated, that the continental system called into action many kinds of industry on the continent, and, in this way, has produced important changes in the course of trade, resulting from the great mercase of manufactures. If we examine whether it be actually true, as asserted in the time of the continental system, that the bref account of the conumerce of the different nation in regard to the different information in the following pages, only a series of colonial goods must necessarily produced in the following pages, only a series of colonial goods must necessarily produced in the following pages, only a series of colonial goods must necessarily produced in the following pages of the different in the different rily produce poverty, it is easy to prove different articles.

说的:"我想要你有什么 The contrary, which has been already fully confirmed by experience. Now wants gave rise to new energy and new branches of industry, in order to gratify those .. of labor, and, simultaneously, the prosperity of the nations. But it is objected that money, or the produce of labor, which would otherwise remain in the various countries, is sent away from them in exchange for colonial goods. true; but even if the express purpose of acquisition were not to procure new enchemopolitan spirit united distant commu- joy hents, the object of all trade and all activity is, not to accumulate money, but to augment the sum of happiness. If this object be attained, industry and trade have effected all that they should do. Of course, no account can be reasonably taken of the small number of idle spendthrifts, who, without laboring, consume their capital in gratifying their pleasures. But at was soon perceived, that, in the existing state of Europe, entirely to exclude colonial articles was utterly impossible, though recourse was had to all kinds of substitutes. The enormous duties imposed on the importation of colonial goods, as far as the French power then reached, that is, throughout nearly all the continent of Europe, contributed essentially to render its nations poorer: for these duties had to, be paid, while nothing of value could be given in return; from which circumstance originated a most pernicious and immoral smuggling trade. But Napoleon asserted that the English would not allow hish to make peace, in which case the whole system would naturally have been changed.—In the 18th century,

Great Britain\* became the first colonial priver. It, therefore, stands at the head of the commercial nations, who are all, more or less, tributary to British art and industry. With more than 23,199 merchant vessels, containing 2,460,500 tons, in 1827, it exported, in the year ending Jan. 5, 1827, to the amount of £50,399,856, and from Ireland, to the amount of £967,312; the imports, during the same Without going into the points at issue be-, time, amounted to £36,038,951, and into Ireland, to £1,420,027. Its commerce is, in a great measure, managed by compahies. These companies are the Russian, the Levant, the African, the South sea, and Hudson's bay companies, the East India tompany (q. v.), and the Borneo,

500

pursuing the pearl fisheries at Solo and Banca, and working the tin mines on the last-named island). The chief exports of · Great Britain are, to the north of Europe, cotton, woollen and glass, hardware, pottery, lead, tin, coal, East India and colonial wares, dyc-stuffs, salt, and refined sugar. In return, Great Britain receives from the north, corn, flax, hemp, iron, turpentine, tur, tallow, timber, linen, pearl and pot-ashes, cordage and hog's bristles. To Germany, Holland, France, Italy, Spain and Portugal, it exports cotton and woollen fabrics, cutlery, dried and salt fish, pottery and glass-ware, colonial and East India goods, and all kinds of the finer manufactures. From Germany it imports corn, flax, hemp, linen cloth and thread, rags, hides, timber and wine; from Holland, flax, hemp, madder, gin, cheese, butter, rags and seeds; from France, wme, brandy, lace, cambric, silk, ornaments and fancy goods and fruit; from Italy, Spain and Portugal, silk, wool, barilla, sulphur, salt, oil, fruit, wine, brandy and cork. Turkey it sends cotton and woollen goods, hardware, colonial and East India goods, lead, tin, iron, clocks and watches; receiving, in return, coffee, silk, finits, fine oil, dye-stuffs, carpets, &c. To North Amerca it sends woollen and cotton manufactures, hardware, linen, glass and other wares; the imports from thence are flour, cotton, rice, tar, pitch, pot and pearl ashes, provisions, ship-timber, &c. The cluef imports from South America are cotton, "hides, skins, tallow, cochineal, dye-wood, engar, indigo, cocoa, gums, &c.; and the exports from England are the same as above mentioned. The same exports are hkewise sent to the West Indies; and, in return, Great Britam receives rum, coffee, tobacco, sugar, ginger, pimento, pepper, andigo, dye-stuffs, drugs, gums, cotton, mahogany, Campeachy wood, &c. the East Indies, China and Persia, it sends woollen goods, iron, copper, lead, tin, foreign silver money, gold and silver, in bars, hardware, and a variety of manufactures (amounting, in 1828, to £4,877,125); for which it obtains mushus, calicoes, silks, nankeens, tea, spices, arack, sugar, coffee, rice, saltpetre, indigo, opium, drugs, gums, quicksilver, precious stones, pearls, &c., amounting, in 1828, to £8,002,786. To the colony of New South Wales, the common English manufactures and colonial

goods are exported, and exchanged for Among themselves, the three British 31.

train-oil, scal-skins, wool, &c.

Solo and Banca company (for working kingdoms trade in the following commodthe gold, and diamond mines of Borneo, rities. From Scotland, England and Ireland receive corn, cattle, woollen and cotton goods, potath, gravite, canvass and iron manufactures; the Scottish fisheries also furnish an important article of commerce. For these things, Scotland receives the productions of Ireland, and articles of luxury, of all kinds, from England. Ireland buys of England and Scotland, woollen, cotton and silk goods, East and West India goods, pottery, hardware and salt; and, in exchange, gives its linen, hides, potatoes and other provisions, &c. foreign commerce of Ireland is, besides, very extensive. It exports its productions and manufactures to France, Spain, Portugal, the West Indies and North America, for wine, fruit, sugar, rum, &c. commercial intercourse between Ireland and the north of Europe is mainly through England, and its trade with the East passes exclusively through the same channel. The chief articles of export from Ireland are linen, potatoes and other provisions, corn, whiskey, herrings and salmon. How great the coasting trade of England is, may be seen from the following table :-

> Entries, inwards and outwards of the coasting trade of the United Kingdom, for the years ending Jun. 5, including the cross channel trade between Great Bruain and Ireland.

	•	INWARDS.	
Years		Tonnage.	Ment
1826		8,408,211	493,411
1827		8,466,255	488,038
1828		8,911,109	512,584
		OUTWARDS.	
1826		8,269,399	484,909
1827		8,791,062	513,959
1828	,	8,957,286	517,129

The foreign possessions, settlements and colonies of Great Bratain, of which it possessed 26 prior to the French revolution, and has gained 17 more by conquest, are Heligoland, Gibraltar and Malta, with Gozo and the Ioman isles, in Europe; its possessions in India, under the administration of the East India company, and Ceylon, in Asia ; the Isle de France, or Mauritius, with the Sechelles and Amirante isles, the cape of Good Hope, Sierra Leone, Cape Coast and Annaboa, the islands of Ascension and St. Helens, in Africa; Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, St. John's, or Prince Edward's island, Newfoundland, Hudson's bay and the bay of Honduras, in North America; Berbice, Essequibe and Demerara, in South America; Jamaica, Barbadost, Antigua, St. Vincent, St. Christopiler, Nevis, Montferrat, the Virgin islands,
Gresada, Tohago, Dominica, Trinidad and
the Bahamas, in the West Indies; also
the Bermudas; in Australia (q. v.), New
South Wales, Van Diemen'a land, and the
colony on New Zealand, and on Melville's
island.

The most important commercial cities of England, besides London, are Liverpool, Bristol and Hull; the most important manufacturing towns are, Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, Nortingham, Halifax, Rochdale, &c. In Scotland, the principal commercial places are Glasgow, Greenock, Leith and Aberdeen. eign trade of Glasgow and Greenock extends to the West Indies, the U. States, the British American colonies, Brazil, and the whole continent of Europe. The foreign trade of Leith and Aberdeen extends to the West Indies, America, the Mediterfancan and the Baltic. The greatest commercial cities of Ireland are, Dublin, Cork, Wexford, Waterford and Belfast.

Germany. On account of its navigable rivers, the commerce of this country is considerable. The chief articles of export are linen, linen yarn, raw wool, rags, quicksilver, com, timber, flux, hemp, wax, Its imports ' lard, salt, wine and metals. are woollens, cottons and silks, hardware, watches, tanned leather, leather goods, tea, cacao, dye-woods, hides, colonial and East India goods. The principal ports of Germany are Hamburg, Lübeck, Bremen, 'Trieste and Dantzic. In the interior, its chief commercial cities are Vienna, Magdeburg, Leipsic, Frankfort on the Maine, Frankfort on the Oder, Augsburg, Berlin, Breslau, Cologue, Nuremberg, Brunswick. Mentz, Botzen and Prague. Hamburg (q. v.), in particular, is the channel through which flows, for the most part, the extensive trade between Great Britum and the German states. By means of the rivers running into the Elbe, the navigation of which has lately become free, the numerous and valuable productions of Upper and Lower Saxony, of Austria and Bohemia, go to Hamburg. By the Havel, the Spree and the Oder, its commercial of operations are extended to Brandenburg, Silesia, Moravia and Poland. The business of Hamburg consists, in part, of the consignments of foreign merchants, and, to a great extent, of the purchase and sale of domestic and foreign goods. Its money transactions are very considerable. Bremen has important articles of export in the products of Westphalia and Lower

Saxony, which it sends to England, Spain and Portugal; and with America it has more intercourse than any other seaport of Germany. The trade in linens, which foreign countries carry on with Germany, passes wholly through the hands of the Hamburg and Bremen merchants, to whom all foreign orders are directed. The importation of tobacco from America into Germany is almost wholly through Bre-Leipsic, the centre' of European trade with the interior of Germany, and the place of deposit for foreign and Saxon goods, has, besides other mercantile privileges, three fairs (at Easter, Michaelmas and new year), to which merchants resort from all parts of Europe, and from Asia, and each of which lasts three weeks: there is, besides, at this place, a considerable market for Saxon wool. The chief articles of traffic are Bohemian, Silesian and Saxon linen; leather, hides, wax and wool, from Poland; woollen goods and pigments, from Prussia; silks, velvets and corals, from Italy; leather, yarrous manufactures and dye-stuffs, from Austria and Hungary; laces, silk goods of all kinds, ribbons, porcelain, watches, bronze and other manufactures, including fancy articles, from France: leather, hemp and flax. from Russia; colonial commodities and manufactures, from England and Holland: and literary productions from all Europe. There is, also, in Leipsic, an important horse market. Augsburg, by means of its agents and bapkers, is the medium of mercantile communication between Germany and the south of Europe. exchange business of Vignna is commonly tran-acted by drafts on Augsburg. It also derives considerable advantage from the forwarding of goods to and from Italy. Frankfort on the Maine, a place of great commercial activity, especially at the time of its two great fairs, in the spring and autumn, has, besides, a very important business, owing to the opulence of its old and new banking houses. It was the central point of all the Rothschilds. In Brunswick, considerable business is transacted in its natural productions, and manufactured articles, as well as in foreign goods. Its two great yearly fairs rank immediately after those of Leipsic and Frankfort. Great quantities of raw thread are sent thither by the Dutch merchants, and the strong beer, called mum, is exported to various parts of the world. Austria is entirely separated from Ger-

Austria is entirely separated from Germany by its system of imposts, and its comnercial regulations. Its trade is mostly carried on by land, or on the rivers. Victora,

the store-house of the inland trade of all Austria, has quite an extensive commerce with England, the Netherlands and France, and important dealings with Italy, Hungary, Poland and Turkey. By the way of Vienna, Germany receives great quantities of raw cotton from Turkey. The commerce of Trieste, in the Littorale, consists chiefly in the exportation of German productions, and of colonial goods, which go from thence to the Levant, and the coasts of the Black sea. Trieste may be regarded as the depot of the productions of the Levant. It is, also, actively engaged in the importation of British wares, and of the produce of the fisheries of Newfoundland. Except this city, the commerce of Austria is confined to Ven-The most considerable ice and Fiume. places of inland trade in the monarchy, besides Vienna, are Lemberg, Prague, Brunn, Brody, Botzen, Pest and Cronstadt. The allowed imports consist mainly of raw produce, cotton and wool, silk, rice, oil, spices, colonial articles, leather, cattle, The articles of export are woollen cloths, linens, cordage, mineral productions, grain and glass. Great profit is derived from the transportation of goods, especially of those of the Levant. In Bohemia, far the greater portion of the trade is in the hands of the Jews, who are numerous in the country. The trade is chiefly in exports—linens, woollens, silks, dye-wood, leather and glass. The glass is superior in polish and cheapness to that of other countries, and the exportation of it is very considerable. It is thought .hat the goods exported to Spain, Russia, the Levant and America amount to The coun-2,500,000 guilders, annually. tries with which Bohemia has the most commercial intercourse are Austria, Holland, Spain, Portugal, Italy and Turkey. The exports are rated at from \$5,000,000 to \$6,000,000, and the imports (colonial goods, 'articles of luxury, &c.) at from \$4,000,000 to \$5,000,000. Prague is the first commercial city of the country, Reichenberg, the second.

Prusia has likewise, by its system of prohibition, been separated from Germany with respect to free commercial intercourse, especially since 1818. The commerce of this monarchy is promoted by the Baltic, by many navigable rivers, and by canals. The commerce in domestic productions is more important than the transportation and commission trade, which flourishes mainly in Cologne, Magdeburg, Stettin, Minden, Dantzie, Königsberg, Breslau, &c. The exports by sea are grain, wax, tallow, wool, lin-

400

seed, flax, hemp, wood, linen, yarn, woollen and comm goods, fine works of art, including articles made of amber. Of the the Oder has three considerable fairs. Magdeburg sends corn, linen, cotton goods, cloths, leather, salt and copper to Hamburg, and to the fairs of Leipsic and Brunswick. It has, besides, a transit trade in colonial goods, wine, grain, &c. Wheat is exported from Dantzic, which possesses the Wheat is exlargest granary in Europe; from Elbingen, Stettin, Königsberg, Anclam and Ber-lin, timber; staves and ashes from Dant-zic, Memel and Stettin; Hemp, flax and linseed, tallow, wax and hog's bristles from Memel and Königsberg. Tilsit carries on a brisk trade in corn, linseed, hemp and flax. The exports of Brunsberg are wool- . len yarn, corn and flax. Colberg exports corn, and the other produce of Poland. The trade of Stralsund, likewise, consists, chiefly in the exportation of corn. Of all the articles of Prussian commerce, the Silesian linen holds the first rank, and for the manutacturing of it, the Silesian towns Hirschberg, Landshut, Schmiedeberg, Friedland, Waldenburg, Schweidnitz, and the Prussian section of Upper Lusatia, are cele-This linen is particularly in debrated. mand among the Hamburg, English, Dutch, Italian and South American merchants. The unports which have the readiest sale in Prussia are colonial goods, dye-wood, salt, Buenos Ayres hides, indigo, groceries, wine, silk, cotton goods, hardware, &c.\*

Hanover, is not distinguished for its mercantile activity. The exports consist of horses, horned cattle, lead, wax, linen, leather, sult, oats, barley, timber, boards, and the ferruginous copper of the Hartz mountains. The linens are ordinary; the table cloths and Osnabruck damask are inferior in quality to those of Prussia and Friesland. The surplus of the domestic consumption is exported to South America through the medium of the Hanseatic cities. The principal imports are English

\* The extended frontier of Prussia exposes it very much to singigling. On this account, Prussia has been lately endeavoring to induce some of the smaller states in her neighborhood to abolish all restrictions on their commercial intercourse with her. Some of the states have acquiexced in this arrangement. These are Bavaria, Murtemberg, Micklenburg, the Saxon dukedoms. Hesse-Darmstadt and Brunswick. Some of the have also allowed Prussia to place her cust of have also allowed Prussia to place her cust of her some other outward frontier, on condition. Ghe baying them a certain sum as a competition of the customs which she will thus receive. Some other German states have united together with umilar, news, and forth the confederacy of Central German. These states are Hanover Hesse-Cassel, the kingdom of Saxony, and Oldchburg.

stid calicoes, colonial goods, Prussian and Prisidand linen, fine French cloths, silks, jewelry and French wines, with all kinds. of small articles of luxury, which the the fairs of Brunswick, Leipsic, and Frankfort on the Maine. The chief commercial towns are Emden, Hanover and Münden.

The commerce of Sarmy, Bavaria, Würtemberg, Hesse, &c., may be comprised under the general head of German commerce, as there exists no reciprocal system of prohibition. (See Germany, Trade of; also the separate articles on these countries.)

Denmark and Holstein. Although the Danish merchants have formed connexions with all the commercial states of Europe, and play an important part in the commerce both of the Mediterranean and the Baltic, their own country possesses but few productions, important as articles of export. Most of what they export are , the productions of their East and West India possessions. To the ports of Petersburg, Riga, Stockholm and Memel, Denmark carries the woollen goods of ·Iceland and the Faroe islands; salt from Spain, France and Portugal; and the productions of the East and West Indies and of China. To Germany it sends its horses, its cattle, colonial and West India goods, and woollen stockings, receiving in return linen, wool, brandy and wine. To Holland it exports rape-seed, fish, &c., m exchange for groceries. To France, Spain and Portugal it carries horses, fish, and other articles from Russia, in exchange for salt, wine, fruits, sweet oil, brandy, silk, Its trade with England consists, mainly, in exchanging timber, &c., for English manufactures. To Iceland it exports rye-meal, rye, barley, brandy and other spirituous liquors, together with the common articles of consumption; receiving in return fresh, dry, and salt fish, trainoil, tallow, eider down, wool and woollen stockings. It supplies Greenland with flour, spintuous liquors, &c., in return for . train and teal-oil, seal-skins, cider down and pelty. The largest commercial towns of Denmark are Copenhagen and Elsinore in Zealand, Aalborg in Jutland, Flensborg and Tönningen in Sleswic, Al-tona and Kiel in Holstein. The West India colonia of Denmark are St. Croix, St. Thomas of St. John's. On the coast of Coromarca, of possesses Tranquebar; on the coast of Guinea, Christianborg and other sm dl places. It has also small factories on the Nicobar islands. In Europe, it possesses Iceland. The chief commer-

ctures, especially woollen cloths cial companies in Denmark are the Asiatic or East India company, the Iceland company, the maritime insurance company, the African or Danish West India, and the general commercial society. In 1824, there were exported from Denmark 2,022,720. tons of grain, 36,562 tons of flour, &c.
France. The commerce of France

extends to every country of the world. The exports are wine, brandy, oil, corn, meal, liqueurs, snuff, silks, woollens, fancy goods of all kinds, watches, porcelain, orysthis, carpets, bronze, linen, lace, cambric, tapestry, hemp, flax, fruits, capers, salt, jewelry, paper, &c.; and France receives the raw produce of all countries, but very few manufactured goods. In 1824, the value of all the exports of France was 440,542,000 francs, of which 163,056,000 were in natural products, and 277,486,000 in manufactured goods. In the same year, goods were imported into France to the amount of 189,535,000 francs in 3,387 French vessels, to the amount of 108,397,000 francs in 4,183 foreign vessels, and to the amount of 150,920,000 by land; the whole importation amounted to 454,861,000 francs. The principal ports are Bordeaux, Marseilles, Nantes, Havre de Grace, St. Malo, L'Orient and Dunkirk. The commerce of Marseilles is mostly with the Levant and the West Indies: that of Bordeaux, with Asia, the West Indies, and the north of Europe. Calais and Dunkirk carry on a very lucrative contraband trade with England. Havre de Grace is the scaport of Paris, which has a very extensive indirect trade, and dealings in bills of exchange with foreign countries. Amens exports great quanti-ties of velvet; Abbeville, Elbeuf, Louvier and Sedan trade mainly in cloths; Cambrai, Valenciennes and Alencon, in cambries and fine laces. Cette, the port of Montpellier, has an extensive trade in Spanish and colonial goods. The commerce of Bayonne is chiefly with Spain. Silks form a principal article of the commerce of Lyons, which is situated in the centre of the roads leading to Switzerland, Spain, Italy and Germany, and has annually four fairs. For Strasburg, its excellent turpentine is an important article of trade. Lille has a direct intercourse, not only with all the commercial states of Europe, but also with the French and Spanish colonies, and with the Levant. other commercial towns of importance are Rheims, Troyes, Grenoble, Nismes, Angoulême, Cognac, Nantes, Rouen, Rochelle, and Caen. Grenoble supplies France, Italy, Spain, and even frant

an important fair. are Martinique, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia great quantities, form the most considera-and Mariegalante in the West Indies; ble constituents of the foreign trade of Cayenne in South America, Pondicherry, Versee. The exports of Asples are olive-Cayenne in South America, Pondicherry, veince. The exports of Ivance are ouver-Chandernagore, and some other posses oil, wool, silk, tartar, wines, raw and man-sions in the East Indies, with several facto-ries on the western coast of Africa and on both sides of cape Verde.

The exports of Sicily, a country on which sions in the East Indies, with several facto-

Although Italy possesses 'the most excellent harbors on the Mediterranean and Adriatic seas, and has a geographical situation uncommonly favorable for commerce, its trade, both domestic and. foreign, is very limited. The cause is to be sought in the impolitic restrictions, heavy taxes and imposts, to which the commercial cities are subjected in this most fruitful, but, for the most part, badly governed country. The chief articles of export from Italy are corn; olive-oil, wine, bandy, silk, cotton, wool, hemp, flax, velvet, damask, barilla (soda), sulphur, sumach, gall-nuts, madder, velani or valonia, and other dye-stuffs, senna leaves, liquorice juice and root, juniper berries and other drugs, anchovies, almonds, figs, nuts, olives, currents, raisins and other fruits, rage, chip and straw hats, the skins of sheep and kids, and marble. The principal commercial cities are Florence, Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, Venice, and Ancona. Leghorn is the main channel of the trade of Italy with the Levant and the Barbary states, and the central point of the commerce of England in the Mediterranean. A great part of its trade is in the hands of the Jews. Silks, taffeta, satins, brocedes, light woollen goods, velvets; &c., are the main articles of export from Florence. These pass through Leghorn, and sell readily in the Levant. Milan and Turin carry on a very extensive trade in their silk, which is celebrated throughout Europe for its admirable finoness and lightness. Ancona has intercourse with the first commercial cities of Europe. Its business is chiefly agency and commission business. Some silk is exported from Nice. The exports of Lucca are oliveoil, silk, damasks, fruit, & c. Much oliveoil is exported from Gallipóli. The trade of Genoa continues considerable. Its exports are velvet, damask (which, next to the Venetian, is the most esteemed in Europe), raw silk, fruit, olive-oil, alum, marble, corals, coarse paper, &c. Venice, once the greatest mart of the world, notwithstanding the disappearance of its ancient splendor, is still an important place for commerce, a great part of the trade of Europe with the Levant being yet in 

Britain with fine gloves. Beaucaire has the hands. The Venetian velvets, daman important fair. The French colonies asks, mirrors, and manufactured silks, in

nature, with profuse generosity, has lavished in abundance all her gifts (the benefit of which, however, is almost destreyed by the weakness of the government); consist of silk, grain, berilla, sulphur, oliveoil, wine, cantharides, sumach, manna, corai, rags, almonds, figs, raisins, nuts, anchovies, amber, goat, buck and sheepskins, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, &c. and pine-apples of remarkable size and exquisite flavor. The chief port is Messina; next to this comes Palermo.

The exports of Sardinia are, chiefly, grain of uncommon excellence, tunnyfish, hides, barilla, salt. Cagliari is the most considerable commercial city

Corsica exports silk, olive-oil, and black, white and and corals. The silk goes mostly to Genoa and Lyons, and the corals are sold at Marseilles, where they are manufactured and polished, to be sent to Africa, to be sold to the Moors and Negroes. The Corsican ports are Ajaccio, Bastia and Porto Vecchio.

Malta, which is, like Gibraltar, a depot for British and colonial goods that are to be disposed of in the Mediterranean, exports cotton, oranges and other fruits.

The Ionian islands (Cephalonia, Zante, Corfu, Santa Maura, &c.) export wine, brandy, olive-oil, raisins, currants, citrons, melons, pomegranates, honey, cotton and salt. The raisins and currents are superior to those of the Morea in quality. wine is Muscadel.

The commerce of the island of Cyprus is inconsiderable. It exports cotton, wool, silk, wine, salt, turpentine, Turkish leather, &c. Its largest commercial cities are Larnica and Rhodes.

The exports of the island of Candia, which, by its situation, is designed for the mart of the European, Asiatic and African trade, consist of oil, soap, wax, wine, linseed, raisins, almonds, laudanum, St. John's bread (the fruit of the ceratonia siliqua), &c.

The Netherlands and Holland. The chief commercial cities of the Belgic Netherlands are Antwerp, Gheut and Ostend. Antwerp is the mart of the commerce of the North of Europe. Since. the opening of the Scheldt, it has been

gradually recovering its mercantile prosperity, and, in all probability, on account def and Malabar coasts, and those at Banof its excellent central situation, its local tam, Padang, Japan, &c. In Africa, Holadvantages, and because it is the channel land has some forts in Guinea; in Amerthrough which most of the commerce of the Butch passes, will one day be of the India islands of Curação, St. Eustatia and first commercial importance. The ex
St. Martin.

Poland. The correct of Beland comports of Antwerp consist, principally, of wheat, beans, clover-seed, linen, laces, carpets, tapestry, and all the manufactures of Brussels, Mechlin, Ghent and Bruges. The articles of export from Ghent are wheat, fine linen, flax, hemp, beans, &c.; those from Ostend are wheat, clover-seed,, flax, tallow, hides, and the linen of Ghent and Bruges.—The chief exports of Holland, the commerce of which has revived since 1814, and employs, every year, 4000 vessels of various descriptions, are butter, cheese, linen, cloth, drugs and paints, fish, wheat, linseed, clover-seed, geneva (gin), The principal dye-stuffs, paper, &c. commercial cities in Holland are Amsterdam, Rotterdam and Groningen; then follow Liege, Middelburg, and the ports of Briel, Delftshaven, Dort, Enckhuysen, Medenblick, &c. Before the decline of Dutch commerce, Amsterdam was one of the greatest commercial cities of the world, the mart of goods from the East and the West, and from the principal states of Europe. At the time when the **Dutch were in exclusive possession of the** spiceries of the East, of the silks of the East Indies and China, and of the fine East India cotton goods, they dressed in coarse cloth, and were satisfied with a very frugal mode of hving. The fine cloths which they themselves manufactured, they destined wholly for foreign countries, and, for their own use, purzhased coarse cloth in England. At that tinke, they likewise sold the superior butter and cheese which they made, and, for their over use, bought the cheaper sorts from Excelend and Ireland. To the exfrom Ended banking business, of which change and banking business, of which the channel was Ainsterdaya, the Dutch were also, that With Hamburg, Ainsterdam prosperity. We have free centrolled and the South of Eubetween the North Grom the time that the between the NoT from the time that the rope, although, harnk of Austerdam dimin-credit of the balan of business has declinished, this branch on of it being transferred ed a great portio in London. The imports to Hamburg an of Doal, tallow, wax, rags, are grain, wood, St. mal trade of Holland, scc. For the cold patavia, Analogna, Banthe, possession of Bring Macassar, in the East da, Ternate, and st. sance, as are also the Indies, is of important

Poland. The exports of Poland consist of corn, hemp, flax, lumber, linseed, tallow and salt. Its commerce is inconsiderable, and is almost wholly in the hands of the Jews. Warsaw and Cracow are the two largest commercial cities. The former has two fairs every year. Cracow has a situation very favorable to commerce, but the principal article of its trade is furnished by the celebrated saltmines of Wieliczka, situated in the neigh-borhood. At the fairs of Leipsic and Frankfort on the Oder, Poland is supplied with manufactures, and all articles of luxury, in exchange for hare-skins and other productions.

Portugal. The Portuguese exports are, chiefly, white and red Port wine, Lisbon and Calcavella wine, salt, oranges, lemous and other fruit, cork, silk, wool, sweet oil. &c. To England are sent Port wine, Lisbon, Calcavella, Madeira and Canary wines, salt, oranges, lemons, cork, &c.; in return for which the Portuguese obtain British manufactures and colonial goods, provisions, corn, meal, copper, lead, coal, &c. Their exports to the North of Europe are wine, salt, fauit, &c.; for which they receive hemp, flax, corn, iron, timber, tar, pitch, stock-fish, and Russian and German linen. The chief commercial cities are Lisbon, Oporto, and Setubal, commonly called St. Ubes. The foreign possessions of Portugal are, the cities of Goa, and Diu in the East Indies, together with a part of Timor, the factory of Macao in China, the Azores, Madeira and Puerto Santo in the Atlantic, the cape Verd islands, those of St. Thomas, Angola, and some settlements in Guinea and on the western coast of Africa, with Mozambique, Melinda and other-settlements on the castern

Russia. Russia exports, principally, iron, hemp, flax, cordage of all kinds, tallow, hides, fir and oak timber, boards, planks, laths, spars, pitch and tar, together with all kinds of grain, especially wheat, linen, can ss of various kinds, wax, honey, -bristles, suct, soap, isinglass, caviare, leather, train-oil, hemp-secd, linseed and tobacco. The chief commercial cities are Tobolsk, Irkutsk and Tomsk, in Siberia; Astrachan, Orenburg and Kasan, in Asiatic Russia; Moscow and Novgorod, in

the interior of Russia; Archangel, on the and East India goods, from Holland; salt, White sea; Libau (though very much decayed) in Courland; Taganrog, Caffa or Theodosin, Odessa, Cherson, Sebastopol factures, of various kinds, from England; and Azoph, on the Black sea and the sea of Azoph; Riga, Pernau, Narva, Revel, principal commercial cities of Switzerland are Bâle, Berne, Zurich, Geneva and Neufchatel. Petersburg, Viborg, Fredericshamm and Arensburg; the places where the fairs are held, at Niznei-Novgorod, Irbit, &c., connecting the caravan trade of the East with the inland trade of European Russia, which is promoted by canals and rivers. By the Black sea and the sea of Azoph, Russia carries on a very lively trade with various Turkish ports; on the Caspian sea, with Persia; by way of Kiachta, with China; and, on the north-west coast of America, it is at present laying the foundation of its trade in the Pacific. Russia has lately sent an expedition from Kodiak northward, to make topographical surveys in the interior of North America, and to establish a commercial intercourse with the natives of this unexplored country. Her colonies in North America are well provided for. Her officers are gaining nautical knowledge in England, and numbers have been sent to the U. States of America, where models of nautical architecture and vessels celebrated for sailing have been purchased on Russian account.

Sweden and Norway. The articles exported from the 28 Swedish ports are iron, steel, copper, pitch, tar, fir, alum and fish. The chief commercial cities are Stockholm, Gottenburg and Gefle. Carlscrona carries on considerable trade in iron, timber, pitch, tar, tallow, potash, luiseed, &c., which articles are sent mainly to the French, Spanish and Italian ports, commonly in exchange for salt. The exports of Gottenburg are tish, iron, steel and boards. The institutions of Sweden for the promotion of commerce are the bank, the East India company, the West India company, the Levant commercial company, the association of industry, &c. From Norway are exported fish, oak and tir timber, deal boards, masts, alum, vitriol. fish and seal oil, pitch, hides, woollen stockings, iron, copper and tar. · chief commercial cities are Christiania, Bergen, Drontheim, Christiansand, Drammer and Stavanger.

Switzerland. Switzerland has a considcrable foreign trade. Its exports consist, chiefly, of fine linen, silks, velvets, imitations of East India goods and shawls, fine calicoes, clocks, watches, ribbons, winc, cheese, honey, &c. The most important articles of importation are colonial

Neufchatel.

Spain. For three centuries, with the decrease of the industry of Spain, its trade has been on the decime. This country might have monopolized the commerce of the world, if it had understood and improved its situation. The natural wealth of the soil is, nevertheless, still the prop. of its trade. The most important productions are wool, silk, salt, iron, copper, coal, quicksilver, barilla, rice, saltpetre, sugar, almonds, olives, oranges, lemons, figs, wincs, brandy and fruit. In Segovia and Leon, about 1,000,000 arobas (q. v.) of fine wool are annually collected, of which about four fifths are disposed of to the French, Dutch and English. . The excellent Spanish wines, brandy, fruit, barilla, &c., are profitable articles for the country. From the port of Barcelona, excellent silks, coarse cloths and cotton goods, with wine, brandy, almonds, nuts, and other productions, are exported; in return for which, the same port receives the silks of Lyons, the hosiery of Nismes, various kinds of stuffs and cotton goods, German linen and dried stock-fish from England. amounting to about \$3,000,000. The exports of Valencia consist, principally, of silk, barilla (soda), coarse wool, dried fruits, wine and brandy. The latter is exported, chiefly, by the Dutch, and carried to Normandy and Bretague. The English carry to Spain, chiefly, woollen cloth; the French, linen, woollen cloth, cutlery, groceries, &c. From the port of Alicant, the Spaniards export, chiefly, dried fruits, silk, wool, barilla, wine, Castile soap, olives, saffron, a kind of cochineal called grana. and salt; of which last, the English and Swedes annually take upwards of 9,000,000 pounds. In Carthagena and Malaga, also, much business is done. From the latter, wines, dried fruit, almonds, sumach, anchovies, olive-oil, &c., are exported. Cadiz has been one of the principal marts in the world, both in ancient and moderntimes. In 1792, its exports to the two Indies amounted to the sum of 276,000,000 reals, and its imports to upwards of 700,000,000 reals (8 reals make 1 dollar). Madrid, the royal residence, is likewise an important commercial place and depot Seville carries on a considerable trade in oil and oranges, which are exported from

Almost the whole Spanish coasttrade is in the hands of the French, Butch and English. The independence of Spanish America has almost totally annihilated the colonial power of Spain. The situation of Cuba may be considered dubious, like that of the Philippines. (See

Philippines and South America.) Turkey. The Turks are, as yet, very far from being a commercial nation, although their commerce with Austria, France, Italy, Great Britain, Holland, &c. by means of the Jews, Armenians and Greeks living in Turkey, who have the trade of this country almost wholly in their hands, is by no means insignificant. The insurrection of the Greeks did, indeed, at first, interrupt very much the commerce of Austria and other states; and the British were also formidable rivals on the Ionian isles; but Vienna, the centie of the Greek trade, has, nevertheless, retained its connexion with Turkey, while the productions and the demands of the free Greeks must soon much increase. They offer cotton for linen, silk for cloths, gold for iron. Nature and habit recommend to them intercourse with Austria. On the other hand, the commerce with European Russia, by way of Constantinople to Odessa, was very much restricted by the Porte, subsequently to 1823, by the necessity of relading, to which it subjected the European vessels destined for Odessa, and by other burdensome regulations. This, however, has been changed by the peace concluded with Russia in 1829. Every vessel can, at present, pass the Dardanelles unmolested. This must soon have a great influence upon the Turkish trade also. In the Archipelago, the Greek struggle for freedom has given rise to many dangers to the commerce of neu-The chief commercial place is trals. Constantinople, particularly in regard to the trade with Russia. Tall within a short period, it distributed the Russian products through the ports of the Mediterranean. The exports of this city, which, under a wise and active government, might become the true mart of the world, are of such little importance, that the great quantities of goods, imported for the use of Turkey, have to be paid for almost wholly, with gold and diamonds. In this port, the Eng-lish; French, Italians and Dutch obtain the produce of Poland, the salt, the honey, the wax, the tobacco and the butter of the Ulraine; the hides, the tallow, the hemp, the canvasa, the peltry, and the metals of Russia and Siberia, and, in exchange, give

the productions of their own countries.

Turks having the slightest part in it.

Hangary. Hungary is considered by
Austria as a foreign country, and is circled
in by a line of custom officers. The trade of Hungary, therefore, is under different regulations from that of the rest of the empire, and is any thing but favored by the government. Its foreign commerce is, nevertheless, by no means insignificant. The exports are wine, tobacco, gall-nuts, antimony, alum, potash, horned cattle, wool, iron, copper, wheat, rye and barley. The exports by far exceed the imports. Goods can only be introduced through Austria and Turkey, the government having prohibited every other way that might be selected for the purpose.

Il. Asia. The commerce of Asia is mostly inland, carried on chiefly, in Western and Middle Asia, by means of those caravans (called, by a poet, the fleets of the desert), in which, sometimes, more than 50,000 merchants and travellers are collected, while the number of camels is far greater. The central point of this trade by caravans is Mecca, which, during the presence of the caravans, offers to the eye of the traveller a more active trade and a greater accumulation of merchandise than any other city in the world. The muslins and other goods of the East Indies, the productions of China, all the spices of the East, the shawls of Cashmere, &c., are transported on the backs of camels to Mecca, from whence they are scattered over, not only the Asiatic, but also the African confinent.

The Arabs, who were, before the discovery of the passage to the East Indiearound the cape of Good Hope, the first commercial people of the world, have now no commerce of consequence. uloes, almonds, the bulsam of Meeca, spices and drugs, and their African imports of myrrh, frankincense and gumarabic, are their chief articles of export Yemen, rich in the costly productions of nature, resorts for a market to Mecca. The Arabian gulf and the Red sea connect the commerce of Arabia with that of Africa, especially with that of Egypt and Abyssinia.

From Masuah, the capital of Abyssinia, are exported gold, civet, ivory, rhinoceros' homs, rich honey, wax and slaves; and for these the Africans obtain, in Mocha, or Merca, and Jedda, cotton, cloves, cinnamon, pepper, musk, ginger, cardamom, camphor, copper, lead, iron, tin, steel, turmeric, vermilion, tobacco, gunpowder, saadal-wood, rice, hardware, arms, and a

number of other kinds of European main, bain mid stuffs made of the same hain of trade, are coffee, elephants tusks, gold, France and Holland, some of whose carsand various kinds of gums; for which it let manufactories keep agents in Angora, imports chiefly East India and Chinese through whom they make their purchases. with British India, Sumatra, the Malay islands, the Red sea, and the eastern coast of Africa.

Well adapted as the geographical situation of Persia is for commerce, it is pursued, nevertheless, with very little energy, and little enterprise. Its exports consist mostly of horses, silk, pearls, brocades, carpets, cotton goods, shawls, rose-water, wine of Schiras, dates, wool of Caramania, gums, drugs of various kinds, &c. The chief places for Persian trade are the Turkish cities of Bagdad and Bassora. The harbor of Abuschar, or Buschir, on the Persian gulf, is also a mart for Persian and Indian goods. Bagdad, once the centre of a brilliant and extensive commerce, may still be considered as the great mart of the East, though it is by no means what it has been. From Bassora, the productions of Arabia, India, Persia and the Asiatic islands are sent to Bagdad, where they find a very good market, and from whence they are scattered through the other cities of the Turkish empne. By means of the Arab caravans, Europe supplies Persia with goods of all kinds, and even with the productions of America. Ou the other hand, it has nothing to give out dates, tobacco, and a very moderate quantity of wooller stuffs, its whole trade consisting in the distribution and sale of the products of other countries. Bassora is, by its, situation, the mart of the active East Indian, Persian and Atabic trade, carried on in the Persian gulf. Its trade with the Fast Indies is very considerable, it bring the channel through which the Ottoman empire is supplied with the groceries of the East, and with the manufactures of the British possessions in the East Indies.

Asiatic Turkey. The principal port of the Levant is Smyrna, a very important depot of the merchandise of the East and West. The articles exported, from the Levant are coffee, cotton, wool, silk, madder, camels' and goats' hair, hides, raisins, figs, pearls, rotten-stone, whet-stones, nutgalls, opium, rhubarb and other drugs. Angora sends to Smyrna, by caravans, considerable quantities of Angora goats'

ufactures. The exports from Atlen, an rial; for the Angora goats hair is manu. Arab city, on the strains of Babelmandely, factured into camlet, in the Levant itself, where many Jews reside for the purpose, and in Europe, especially in England. productions. Muscat, a port in the Arabia Damascus is the centre of trade in Syria, bian province Oman, the key of Arabia and does a good deal of business through and Persia, carries on considerable trade. the caravans, which go from the north of Asia to Mecca, and from Bagdad to Cairo. Aleppo has much commercial intercourse with Constantinople, Bassors, Bagdad, Damascus and Scanderoon, or Alexandretta, to which places caravans go every year, through Aleppo. Its exports are its own silk and cotton goods, the shawls and mushus of the East Indies, the gail-nuts of Curdistan, copper, pistachio nuts, and drugs. Alexandretta has some trade of importance. Erzerum is the mart of silk and cotton goods, printed linens, groceries, rhubarb, madder, and East Indian zedoary.

THE WAY WE THE

The British East Indies, and the Malay Peninsula. For the long period of 4000 years, the products of India, so important m commerce, have remained the same; for all the commodities and treasures of India, mentioned by the ancients, are, to this day, those for which the nations of the other quarters of the world resort thither, viz., rice, indigo, cochineal and other dye-stuffs, opium, cotton, silk, drugs, cinnamon, cassia, cocoa-nuts, &c. The L'ast India trade is mostly in the hands of the English, under the management of the East India company. Next to the Enghsh, the U. States are most extensively engaged in the East Indm trade. Denmark carries on but an inconsiderable trade with the East Indies, and that oncecarried on by Sweden is now almost annihilated, although, prior to the late great changes in the government of that country, the Swedish East India company was, of all the commercial societies of Europe, the best regulated, and the most successful in its operations, next to the English. The trade of Portugal with the British possessions in the East Indies is of importance; that of Spain, on the other hand, inconsiderable. Calcutta is the most important commercial city of the East Indies. Besides it, Benares, Guzerat, Oude and Moultan are worthy of note, among the commercial towns of northern India; Madras and Pondicherry, on the eastern coast; Bombay, Surat and Cochin, on the western; Goa, &c. From Queda, on the peninsula of Malacca, are obtained tin, rice, wax, fish maws and sharks' fins; at Salengore, Pahang and Trangano, cloves,

VOL. III.

32

matmant, pepper, camphor, betel, ivory, probably amount annually to £500,000.—
gold dust, tortoise shell, tis, &c. Gold Next to the English, the people of the U.
diet is exported chiefly from Malacca. States have the most trade with China. Since 1819, the British government in Calcutta, through sir Thomas Stamford Raffles, has founded, according to his plan, a new commercial town on the fertile, well-wooded island of Sincapore (q. v.), on the south extremity of the peninsula of Mulacca, on the straits of this name, which is of extreme importance to the British trade with China, and must destroy the China trade of the Dutch. If Sincapore is made a free port, England will be able. to supply from thence all of Further India

with the productions of its industry.

Chipa. The trade which China carries on with Europe, British India, the U. States of America, Cochin-China and Siam, with Japan and the other Asiatic islands, is very considerable. The British imports into China are partly shapped by the East India company, partly by private merchants. From 1781 to 1791, the company sept thither to the amount of £3,471,521 in goods, and £3,588,264 in bullion; from 1792 to 1809, £16,502,338 worth of goods, and £2,466,946, in bullion. The exports which the company made to England, amounted, from 1793 to 1810, including duties, freights, &c., to £41,203,422, and they were sold for £57,896,274, leaving the company a net profit of £16,622,852. As the English East India company trades more extensively with the Chinese than any other body, we shall subjoin the following official statement of its exports of tea and raw silk from the port of Canton, for each of the following ten years, as given in the appendix to the report of the committee of the house of lords, printed in 1821.

Years .	Tea, pounds	Silk , pounds
181011	19,710,737	. 41,454
1811-12	26,164,221	87,071
1812-13	28,267,413	145,889
1813-14	24,727,456	140,120
1814-15 -	26,195,144	209,073
181516	33,013,387	37,642
1816-17	29,353,973	67,518
1817—18	20,151,597	55,597
181819	21,055,860	42,007
veruge of 1825, 6, 7	37,090,895	•

From the different ports of the British passessions in the East, 35 ships entered the port of Canton in the years 1818 and 1819, and the value of their cargoes was \$8,714,278, and, including what was shippod to Macao, the total was \$11,009,272. The exports of the English merchants not connected with the company, to China,

In the following years, their imports into, and exports of tea from, Canton were as ' stated below, the value of the imports being given in dollars, the amount of tea exported being stated in pounds.

Years.	Imports.	Tra exported.
181516	\$2,527,500	7,245,290
1816-17	5,609,600	8,954,100
1817—18	7,076,828	9,622,130
181819	10,017,151	10,988,649
Average ex	2,735,090	
"	" of 1894_95	12 214 440

having increased 387 per cent, in 25 years. The exports of tea by the East India company, in this time, have also greatly in-. creased. The company's export trade from Europe to China has long been stationary. The imports of the nations on the continent of Europe into China consist chiefly of gold bullion, for which tea is received; but these imports are small, since most of them obtain their tea from the English and . Americans. With Siam, Cambodia, Cochin-China, the Asiatic islands and Japan, China has a very active intercourse, and, of late, with Russia also, both by land through Kiachta to Irkutsk, &c., and by water. The Dutch, English and Americans have factories at Canton, the French an agent there or at Macao, the Spaniards an agent at Macao, where the Portuguese have a colony.

From Sam and Tonquin are exported tm, ivory, d'amonds and other precions stones, gold dust, copper, salt, betel, pepper, wax, silk, timber and lackered wares, end the commerce of these two countries e mostly in the hands of the Chinese and Porruguese. The trade of Comm-China is mostly in the hands of the Chinese. The exports are sugar, silk, gold, betelnuts, chony, Japan-wood, buffaloes' horns, dried fish and fish-skins. The Chinese empire is so vast, and the variety of the products of the different provinces so great, that the inland commerce of this world in itself has withdrawn the attention of the people from the foreign trude, which oppressive regulations have majured. Formerly, however, Chinese vessels went to Arabia, and even to Egypt.

Japan. Since the expulsion of the Portuguese from Japan, the commerce of this country has been almost wholly domestic. The only foreigners, with whom the Japanese still have any trade, are the Chinese and the Dutch, and these are lunited to the single port of Nangasaki.

The Chinese supply the Japanese with. rice, common porcelain, sugar, ginseng, ivory, silks, nankeen, lead, tin plates, alum, &c.; and, in return, receive copper, camphor, lackered wares, pearls, coals, and a metallic composition, called sowas, consisting of copper and a small quantity The Dutch obtain chiefly copper, camphor, lacker and lackered wares. Only 2 Dutch and 12 Chinese vessels are allowed to enter the harbor of Nangasaki annually. After the arrival of a vessel and the performance of the preliminary Then come the imperial officers (for the trade with foreign countries is the monopoly of the emperor), who examine the quality and the quantity of the goods, deliberate together, and fix the price of the native commodities that are demanded in return. Foreigners must submit to these conditions, or keep the goods which they have brought. The Japanese merchants can obtain foreign goods only by pur-In the chasing them of the emperor. manufacture of silks and woollens, porcelain and lackered wares, the Japanese are in no degree inferior to the Europeans. In the manufacture of hardware, they have also attained great skill. The Japanese sabres and daggers are very excellent, and are perhaps surpassed only by the sabres of Damascus. In polishing steel and all other metals, they are also very skilful, and their fine poscelaus are much superior to the Chinese. In the begunning of the 17th century, the English began to trade with Japan; but the Portuguese missionaries, and afterwards the Dutch, succeeded in prejudicing the govcriment against them. In 1673, the attempt to renew the trade was again frustrated by the Dutch. On account of the great advantages which it was thought this trade would ensure to England, a third attempt was made in 1699, and the factory at Canton was instructed to enfer into connexion with Japan, if by any The result, however, did means possible. not satisfy expectation, and all further attempts have been given up. In 1813, however, when Java was subjected to Great Britain, the East India company had some slight intercourse with Japan. The Russien mission to Japan, under Krusenstern, in 1805, was no less unsuccessful than the English had been. (See

The Islands of Amboyna, Banca, the Bandas, Java, Sumatra, Borneo, &c.— From Amboyna are exported cloves, to confine the cultivation of which solely to

this island, the Dutch took great pains to extirpate all the clove-trees on the neighboring islands. For this purpose, also, the government of Amboyna, with a numerous retinue, still makes a journey every year to the other Dutch islands. ca is celebrated for its tin mines, and the exportation of this tin to China is of much importance, as the Chinese prefer it to the English on account of its malleability. About 4,000,000 pounds of tin are obtained annually. The Banda islands produce nutmegs and mace. The staple exceremonies, the goods are sent on shere. ports from Batavia, where all the goods of the Dutch East India company are deposited, are pepper, rice, cotton, sugar, coffee and indigo. 6,250,000 pounds of pepper, part of which is raised on the island itself, part brought from Bantam, Sumatra, Borneo, and the other islands, are annually stored in the magazines. Both coffee and sugar have also been cultivated here, of late years, to the amount each of 10,000,000 pounds. Borneo has, besides pepper, gold in dust and bars, wax, sago, camphor, the last of the most excellent quality. In addition to the Dutch and English, the Chinese have here an active trade. The exports of Ceylon are emmamon, pepper, coffee, tobacco, betel, cocoa-nuts, drugs, timber, pearls, prerious stones, corals, &c. Of the Philippines, the principal are Lucon or Manilla, and Magandanao or Mindana. The exports are indigo, sugar, silk, gold dust, quassia, pepper, tortoise-shell, wax, precious stones, silver, sago and tobacco. The trade of the Philippines with China and South America is considerable. Manilla produces sugar, the best Asiatic tobacco, in-digo, and a kind of hemp. The Prince of Wales' island, from its situation between India, China and the Eastern isles, has an important trade. Its exports are chiefly benzoin, pepper, betel-nuts, groceries; metals, East India zinc, cochineal, eagle-wood, Japan-wood, elephants' teeth, sugar, and silver bullion. Sumatra carries on considerable trade. The exports are gold dust, betel, benzoin, pepper, camplior, Japan-wood, sulphur and rat-

tans, wax, guni-lac, groceries, tin, &c.
III. Arrica. The want of navigable III. Africa. The want of navigable rivers, and the immeasurable deserts by which the fruitful regions of Africa are separated, form an insurmountable obstacle to that extension of comme**rce, which** the great fertility of this quarter of the glolic would promise. In addition to the intercourse of the interior, the commerce of Africa has its sources in Egypt, the Barbary states, on the west coast in. Gambia, Niger and Senegal, at the cape of Good Hope and the Portuguese colonies, and on the coasts of the Red sea. The inland trade is carried on by means of caravans. The African caravans consist of from 500 to 2000 camels. three principal countries from which they proceed are Morocco, Fez and Egypt. The chief articles of the inland trade of Africa are salt, gold and slaves. The greatest caravans go from the western coast and from the interior by way of trade, and other places of depot, to the eastern coast, where the most important commercial places are Natal (on the coast of Lagoa), Soffala, Quilimane, Mozambique, Querimba, Quiloa, Mombaza. Melında, Brava, Magadoxo, Berbera, Zeila and Adel. Quilmane, Mozambique and Melinda are Portuguese settlements. From Adel, Zeila, Berbera and Brava are exported, mainly, gold dust, ivory and incense, for which the products of Arabia and the East Indies are returned. There is considerable trade between the British settlements in the East Indies and Mozambique, and the English bbtain elephants' and hippopotamus' teeth, tortoiseshell, drugs, cownes, gold, &c.

The Barbary States. The commercial intercourse of the Barbary states with Europeans is very inconsiderable and vacillating, and the little business which is transacted is mainly in the hands of the French, British and Americans. exports consist of olive-oil, wax, wool, wheat, gum-, almonds, dates, aromatic seeds, ivory, leather, hides and ostrichfeathers. Even the coral fisheries on the coasts (from cape Rosa to cape Roux) are in the hands of the French and Italians; and the annual produce of about 50,000 pounds of coral is more than \$426,000. But a far more important commèrce is pursued by the Barbary states with Arabia, Egypt, and the interior of Africa. Their caravans are met with in Mecca, Cairo and Alexandria. The chief commercial cities are Algiers, Tunis, Tripple Sallee, and Agadeez, or Santa Cruz, and in Morocco; Mogadore. Before the French revolution, the commerce of Algiers was wholly in the hands of a company of French merchants at Marseilles, who had regular settlements in the ports of Bona, La Calle and Il-Col. But, in 1806, the dev conveyed, for \$50,000, the possession of those pops to England. The chief ports of export of Algiers are Bona and Oran, Tunis is the most important commercial

Guinea, in the neighborhood of the rivers state in Barbary. Its chief harbors are; Biscrus, Susa and Soliman. Tripoli has little trade, and its exports consist mostly of saffron, ashes, senna leaves and madder. The trade of Morocco and Sallee is also of little importance. Agadeez, or Santa Cruz, is the most southerly harbor of Morocco, and was once the centre of a very important trade. Fez is still such a centre between the ports of Morocco, the Mediterranean sea and the interior of Afrien. (See Timbuctoo and Wassanah.)

Cape of Good Hope. The trade with Timbuctoo, the great mart of the inland the vape of Good Hope is extremely advantageous to Great Britain. In 1809, the importation of English goods exceeded £330,000, while the exports of the colony (mostly Cape wine) did not amount to £6000. The amount of the trade has since been very much, enlarged by the increase of colonization. The average exports from Great Britain to the cape of Good Hope amount to \$2,119,000, and the imports into England from the Cape to \$1,561,000.

Egypt. From its uncommonly favorable situation in the centre of three portions of the globe, this country seems destined by nature to be also the centre of their commerce; but it has altogether lost its former high rank in the commercial world, since it has ceased to be the channel of the India trade. It has, nevertheless, considerable inland trade, which extends into the interior of Africa. Three caravans go thither, every year, from Egypt. One goes to Sennaar, and collects the productions of this country and Abyssinia; another to Darfour, and the third to Fez, whither the productions of Bornou, and all the countries lying along the Nile, are brought. Other caravans exchange Egyptian commodities for those of the East Indies and Arabia. But the most considerable is that which consists of the united carayans of Abyssinia and Western Africa. and goes annually to Mecca. The exports of Egypt are rice, corn, cotton, myrrh, incense, opium, dates, mother-of-pearl, ivory, gums and drugs of various kinds, hides, wax, &c., most of which go to Constantinople, the Barbary states, Great Britain, Venice and Marseilles. It also exports the productions of Arabia, e. g., Mocha coffee. The chief commercial cities are Cairo and Alexandria, since 1819 united again by a canal. Cairo has two ports, Rosetta and Damietta. France sends to Egypt woollen cloth, red caps, fringes of all kinds, and ornaments of dress, ordinary china ware, arms, &c. England sends muslins, and cloths of

different kinds, alum, iron, lead, vitriol, guns, &c. From Florence, silks are imported.

Guinea. Sierra Leone, and the Pepper, Ivory, Gold and Slave Coasts, where the Dutch, French, English and Danes have settlements, export gold dust, ivory, gums, hides, &c., and formerly slaves, in exchange for woollen and cotton goods, linen, arms, gunpowder, &c. The coasts of Lower Guinea (Congo, Angola, &c.), and the Guinea islands, mostly occupied by the Portuguese, export grain, provisions, cotton, indigo, sugar, &c. The slave-trade (q. v.) is here prosecuted still by the Portuguese. Among the other

African Islands, the Azores raise, for exportation, wine and fruits. About 20,000 pipes of the former are annually exported by the English and Americans, chiefly to the East and West Indies. The island of St. Michael sends, every year, to England and the United States 60—80,000 boxes of oranges. The oranges of the island of Pico are remarkable for their superior quality. This island also prosuperior quality. duces a beautiful kind of wood, which is almost equal to mahogany.-The staple productions of the Canaries are archil, in its raw state, rose-wood, brandy and Canary wine. The last goes chiefly to the West Indies and England: in the latter country, it is always sold for Madeira wine. -The cape Verd islands export archil in a raw state, and coarse cotton cloths for the use of the Africans.—'The staple product of Madeira is valuable wine, which is divided into five kinds, according to the market for which it is designed. most excellent is called London particular. The next in quality is also sent to the London market. Of inferior quality is that destined for the India market. The kind that goes to America holds the fourth rank, and the fifth is designated by the name of cargo. Of this ware, the English annually receive more than 7000 pipes; the U. States, about 3000.—The Isle of Bourbon produces coffee, cloves, white pepper, cotton, gums, benzou and aloes. Its trade is confined almost wholly to Madagascar, Isle de France, the Comoro islands, and the settlements of the Arabs on the eastern coasts of Africa.—The Isle de France, or Mauritius, exports coffee, indigo, cotton, sugar, nutmegs, cloves, ambergris, &c.—The exports of Madagascar are cowries, betel-nuts, ambergris, wax, cocoa-nuts and corn.

IV. AMERICA. The extensive coasts of America give it all the commercial advantages of the ancient world, free from the

obstacles presented by those masses of continents, the interior of which is so remote from the sea and destitute of navigable rivers, like the whole of Africa and the boundless tracts of Asiatic Tartary and Siberia. In the abundance of navigable rivers, both North and South America have an immense advantage over the The long other quarters of the world. chain of great lakes, and numerous navigable rivers in North America are already the theatre of a very active commerce. The great inland countries of South Amer-The ica are rendered accessible by rivers of gigantic magnitude, and from the mouth of the river Plata to the gulf of Darien, an inland navigation may be effected, almost without having recourse to the aid. of art. But there still remains, for the promotion of American commerce, the execution of a great work—the digging through the narrow isthmus of Darienby which a connexion between the Pacific and Atlantic would be effected, the advantages of which would be incalculable. The western passage to India, which Columbus sought for, would then be effected. Alexander von Humboldt points out three places as most adapted to the execution of such a project. Nature herself seems willing to assist, for, though the mountains . forbid the idea of forming a canal immediately across the isthmus, yes, by starting in lat. 12° N., joining the head of lake , Nicaragua to a small river which runs into the Pacific ocean, and forming a canal 30 miles long, through a low, level country, a communication between the two oceans might be effected. The governments which are most directly interested in making such a canal are, at present, too weak and too unsettled to be able to carry it into effect; yet Bolivar appears to have always had this great work in view.

THE UNITED STATES OF NORTH AMER-The rapid progress which the U. ICA. States have made, meconimerce and navigation, is unparalleled. Hardly had this people appeared on the ocean, before every coast of the earth was visited by their natigators. While they are seen covering the ocean with their vessels, throughout the Atlantic coast, even to cape Horn,f whence they enter the broad Pacific; in the other direction, they press onward to the ice of the north pole, and penetrate the deep recesses of Hudson's bay and Davis's straits. The most remote and dangerous seas are traversed by their keels. The coasts of the whole southern hemisphere, the western coast of America, and the eastern coasts of Asia, are visited by

32 \*

furs, sailing to China, and going thence, with tea, &c., to the ports of Europe. The American whalers are distinguished for skill and holdness.

Agricultural Exports. The trade of the U. States for the year ending September, 1828, may be assumed as the basis of the remarks to be made upon the subject of custom-house estimates, were \$50,669,669. Those of cotton, the great staple of the country, were \$22,487,220, and, accordingly, nearly half of the entire amount. The next greatest export is that of tobacco, which amounted to \$5,260,960. Of rice, the export amounted to \$2,620,696. The value of these three articles, being over \$30,000,000, thus constituted three fifths of the whole. In the annual returns made to congress, the exports of do-mestic products are divided into those of the sea, the forest, agriculture and manufactures. The three species of agricultural articles above mentioned are mostly the productions of the Southern States, including Virginia and Kentucky. The other exports, coming under the same head, are mostly furnished by the Middle and Western States; namely, beef, tallow, hides and cattle, butter, cheese, pork, bacon and hog-, horses, mules, sheep, flour, biscuits, corn-meal, rye-meal, oats, potatoes and apples, flax-seed and hops. Of these articles, the principal is flour and biscuit, the value of which was \$4,464,771, being the third article in value among the exports. The fifth article in value is that of swine and their products, viz., bacon, pork and lard, the value of which was \$1,495,830, making about one thirty-third part in value of the whole export. The articles of com-meal and rye-meal amounted to \$881,894, constituting a little more than one sixtieth part of the whole exports. Cattle and their products, inchiding butter and cheese, exceeded the last amount, being \$896,316. This species of export is of far less comparative importance in the trade than formerly, besing limited to its present amount, not by the capacity for production, but by the extent of demand in the foreign markets; for an increase of the foreign demand would very soon double and treble the quantity. Some of the articles comprehended in the above list, though agricul-

them. It is a very common thing for an turnl products, yet involve some process American merchantman to make a voyage of manufacture; such, for example, as round the world, starting from the U. butter, cheese, bacon, flour, biscuit, meal, States, going round cape Horn to the and part of the tobacco. A great many, north-west coast of America, taking in head of manufactures, include in them the value of materials supplied by agriculture, such as the cotton fabrics, those of leather, and spirits distilled from grain; so that, on, the whole, the strictly agricultural products of the country constitute a larger proportion of the whole exports than the tables represent; and yet the proportion this commerce. The exports of domestic represented by the tables is very large, be-products for that year, according to the ing 38,500,000 out of the 50,000,000; and, if we add the value of the materials supplied by agriculture for the manufactured exports, we shall have at least six sevenths of the whole domestic exportation consisting of the raw products of agriculture .- Products of the Sea. The products of the whale, cod, mackerel and herring fisheries, exported mostly from the Northern States. amount to \$1,033,980, being nearly a thirtieth part of the whole domestic export. Nearly one half of this value consists of codfish, and more than one third of the products of the whale-fisheries.—**Products** of the Forest. The value of skins, furs, ginseng, lumber, staves, bark, tar, pitch, rosm and turpentme, and pot and pearl ashes, partly from the Northern and partly from the Southern States, which were formerly of much greater comparative importance in the trade of the country, now constitutes about one thirteenth part of the 🔹 whole value of the domestic exports, and amounts to \$3,889,611. A large proportion of the trade in these articles, as well as in these of codfish and bread-stuffs, is carried on with the West Indies, Mexico and South America. The skins and the rurs go to Europe and Canton, the ginseng to Canton, but in less quantity than formerly, being, in 1828, but \$91,164; and the pot and pearl ashes are sent to England and France.—Manufactures. The manufactures are, as yet, of the courser sort, consisting partly of articles made of the products of the country, and partly of those fabricated from foreign materials But it is obvious that the arts of the comit. try, in their early stages, will be most haturally directed to the working of the raw materials of domestic production; and we accordingly find, that a very small part of the value of exported manufactures consists of the cost of raw materials previously imported. The articles in which the foreign materials form a considerable part of the value, are spirits manufactured from molasses, refined sugar, articles of

iron, cordage, chocolate, gunpowder, umbrellas and parasols, gold and silver coin, spirits distilled from West India molasses and jewelry. The whole estimated value comprises a comparatively small proporof exports of home manufactures is about 26,500,000, being about 13 per cent of the whole domestic exports of the country. About \$700,000 of this amount ought to be struck out of the list of domestic ex-, ports, being gold and silver coin, consisting, mostly, of metals imported from alroad, and, after being coined at the mint, again exported. The labor put upon these materials, in coming, is so inconsidthe coin of the country exported ought not to be included in the estimate of the value of domestic exports. Considerable quantities of gold, it is true, have been produced in North Carolina, but by no means enough, as yet, to supply the demand for the consumption of the country, though it is to be considered, at the same time, that this article, as far as it can be supplied from the domestic mines, will tend directly abroad, being drawn into this channel by the higher price of gold, compared with silver, in England and France than in the U. States; the value being, in England, as  $15 \frac{1}{10}$ , in France, as  $15 \frac{6}{12} \frac{1}{10}$ , and in the U. States, as  $15 \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{10}$  to 1. Consequently, the gold, whether in com or bullion, tends strongly to leave the country. Some of it is arrested for use in jewelry and the arts, but very little in the currency, or in the vaults of the banks. Ountting this article, then, the other articles above enumerated, being the only ones the value of which is made up, in any considerable degree, of foreign materials, are valued, in the returns, at \$6\$3,000. The value of materials imported, and then wrought up in manufactured articles, and exported, and included in the list of domestic manufactures, may be estimated at about \$200,000 or \$250,000; leaving the net exports of manufactures from the rayv products supplied by the country about \$5,750,000. As cotton fabrics form a large item in this list of exported manufactures, and those fabrics are mostly of the coarser kind, the raw material will constitute a very considerable part of their value, and the proportional value of the direct wages of manufacturing labor, incorporated in these exports, will be proportionally less. If, for instance, a plough, or trunk, or quantity of combs, be sent abroad, almost the whole value of the export consists of the wages of the manufacturers; and a still greater proportion of the value of earthen and stone wares, which make a very considerable item in this list, is

of this description; whereas an export of tional value of manufacturing labor. Taking the whole list of domestic manufactured articles together, and making allowances for the cost of the raw materials, in their rudest state, after they are taken from the ground or from animals, and assume the character of merchandise, by deducting their value from the gross amount of that of the exported manufactures, the remainder, which is the result erable a part of their value, that the value of of the manufacturing labor, interest of capital and profits incorporated into these materials, to bring them into the state in which they are exported, may be esti-We will mated at about \$4,000,000. now glance hastily at the descriptions of articles on which the arts of the U. States are employed for the supply of foreign markets; and the most considerable of them is cotton twist, thread and fabrics, the exported value of which, for the year 1828, was \$1,000,000 and a fraction over, being one fiftieth part of the whole domestic exports, the principal markets of which are South America, Mexico and the Mediterranean. The value of leather, and its various manufactures, exported, is a little over \$500,000, making one per cent, of the entire exports of the description of which we are speaking. value of hats exported during the same year was about \$333,300-a very large amount, considering the short period since this article has been sent to foreign markets. Soap and cardles have long been supplied for the foreign markets, the amount for the year in question being about \$900,000. The various articles manufactured, for the most part, of wood, such as furniture, or of wood, leather and iron, such as coaches and carrages, besides various agricultural implements supplied to the West Indies and South America, constitute a very important branch of trade. which amounted to between \$600,000 and \$700,000. The American glass begins to appear in the foreign markets. The value sent abroad in 1828 was \$51,452, and it bids fair to be increased. The other experts consist of a variety of articles in small quantities, among which are, wearing apparel, combs and buttons, brushes, fireengines and apparatus, printing-pressesand types, musical instruments, books, maps, paper and stationary, and trunks. It is apparent, from the above enumeration and estimates, that the manufactured articles, of which the export is most considerable and the most flourishing, are those of which the raw materials consist, mostly, of cotton, wood and leather.

Foreign Exports. The foreign articles imported and again exported from the country, during the same year, amounted to \$21,595,017. This transit trade thus appears to form a very important part of ' \* the American commerce. But one third of this whole amount consists of an article which affords very little freight, namely, specie, the export of which, during the same year, was about \$7,500,000. Auother farge item in value, of this transit silks exported amounted to about a quar-The value of wines exportter as much. ed was about \$333,300; that of tens about twice as much; and that of coffee and cocoa \$1,500,000, and of sugar nearly \$1,000,000. These are the most important articles of foreign export. other exports of foreign articles previously imported amounted, during the same year, to about \$8,000,000 in the whole; but it is not necessary to enumerate them.

Imports. The imports, for the same period, according to the custom-house estimates, amounted to \$88,589,824, and exceeded the estimated value of the exports by about \$16,250,000. There should, of course, be an excess of value of imports, according to those returns, whether their value is estimated at the cost in foreign ports, or at the market-price in the Amer-ican ports; for these goods are the returns for the exports, the value of which is estimated at the rate of the markets in the U. States; and, unless a greater value of merchandise can be obtained in exchange, in the foreign ports, the ship-owners would obtain nothing for outward freight; and still more ought the value of the imports in the American markets, after deducting duties, to exceed that of the exports; for this excess is the only fund for caying the two freights and interest on the capital employed. This excess for the year m question, was about 22 per cent, which cannot, however, be considered very exact, but is probably below the actual rate. That it must be a large amount, in order to save the merchants from loss, is evident; for the registered formage, which is mostly employed in foreign trade, is about 750,000 tons, so that an excess of \$16,000,000 in the value of imports over that of exports, supposing an exchange of one for the 6ther, would give only about \$21 per ton per annum for the shipping employed-an amount scarcely sufficient to defray the expenses of the navigation, including

16. 1 port-charges, and leave a surplus for interest on the capital invested in the cargoes, and a small profit to the merchant. But the rate per ton for the shipping actually employed in the foreign trade, if we estimate the accession at \$16,000,000, and suppose the whole trade confined to American ships, will exceed that abovementioned, since the registered vessels are partially employed in the coasting-trade, as vessels often take a cargo from one home port to mother, whence a cargo is taken for exportation. But a part of this trade trade, consists of cotton fabrics, the exports requires none of the excess, of which we of which were \$2,000,000. The foreign have been speaking, to defray the expenses of navigation, for about one thirteenth part in value is carried on in foreign bottoms, the imports in which wer€ about \$6,500,000. If the whole trade were carried on by foreign shipping, and the whole were a barter trade, without credits, as the trade between any two nations, or any number of nations, must, in effect, be, in the long run, the value of exports and imports, estimated at the prices m the home market, after deducting duties paid on importation, must be just equal; for, in the case supposed, all the expenses of transportation are defrayed by the foreign ship-owners. In proportion, therefore, as foreign shipping is employed in the trade, the excess of the value of imports over that of exports will be reduced. since, if a country employs foreign shipping in its trade, it must export an additional value of merchandise to pay the freights, or import a smaller value of merchandise in exchange for the same exports. In regard to the various kinds of goods imported, without pretending to great exactness, which is the less impormet as the proportions vary considerably from year to year, it appears that some of the principal articles have constituted hearly the following proportion of the whole imports, previously to 1828; viz. wool and woollen fabrics, 11 per cent.; cotton stuffs, 12; silks, 10; herip and flax, and manufactures of them, 5; iron and steel, and manufactures of them, 5; spirns, 14; molasses, 24; tens, 4; coffee, 34. sugar, 51; and indigo, 11 per cent.

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The principal trade, both import and export, is with Great Britain and its dependen cies, whence, in 1826, the imports were forty-two ninety-sixths of the whole importation. But to state, even in a general manner, the species of merchandise of which the commerce to and from each country principally consists, would extend this part of the present article to too great a length. Before closing it, however, we should not omit to remark, that the do-with the U. States. (q. v.) The trade mestic trade of the country is more exten-which they have with the Indian tribes, the returns of the shipping, a greater quantity of tonnage being employed in the foreign commerce; and as these vessels make from 3 to 10, 12 or 20 passages in a year, according to the distance of the ports between which they trade, the amount of commercial exchanges along the coast, and up the rivers to the head of sloop navigation, without including the 1829.) trade between the coast and the interior, must greatly exceed the foreign com-

From the official report of the treasury department, it appears, that the imports into the U. States, fluring the year ending September 30, 1829, amounted to \$74,492,527, of which amount \$69,325,552 were imported in American vessels, and \$5,166,975 in foreign vessels; that the exports, during the same year, amounted to \$72,358,671, of which \$55,700,103 were of domestic produce, and \$16,658,478 of foreign produce; that of domestic articles, \$46,974,554 were exported in American vessels, and \$8,725,630 in foreign vessels; and of the foreign articles, \$15,114,887 were exported in American vessels, and \$1,543,591 in foreign vessels; that 872,946 tons of American shipping entered, and 944,799 cleared, from the ports of the U. States; and that 130,743 tons of foreign shipping entered, and 133,006 cleared, during the same period. See the valuable Statistical Tables, by Watterston and Van Zandt, Washington, 1829.)

The Canadas, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. The trade of the two Canadas was long confined to the bare produce But, m of the fisheries and the fur trade. consequence of the improvement of the British colonial system, and of the embargo which was imposed on the American trade during the last war of the U. States with Great Britain, it has much increased. · Its exports are wheat, flour, corn, biscuit, . fish, oak and pine tumber, staves, masts, . lumber, Canadian balsam, spruce beer, pot and pearl ashes, cast-iron, furs and skins, castoreum, ginseng, &c. The imports are wine, rum, sugar, molasses, coffee, tobacco, salt, coal and British manufactures. Since 1825, the trade of Canada has increased rapidly. (See Canada.) The trade is mostly with the British West India colonies and with the mother country. They do some business, however,

sive and mere important than the foreign. consists merely of barter.—Nova Scotia That it is more extensive, appears from and New Brunswick have nearly the same exports. In Haliburton's Nova Scotia, vol. i, p. 233, is an interesting table of consting trade and fisheries than in the the prices of different articles, estimated in spring heaver, as settled by government in 1761. The trade of Nova Scotia has lately again increased, particularly with the West Indies. (See the statistical table .. in Th. C. Haliburton's Histor. and Statis. Account of Nova Scotia, 2 vols., Halifax,

> Mexico. The commerce of Mexico is, at present, checked by natural and political causes. The want of river communication is a great impediment to its internal commerce. Roads lead from the plateaux to the scaports, but they are very imperfect, and beasts of burden, therefore, are preferred to carriages, which would not be able to make their way. A much easier communication between the Mexican Atlantic seaports and those on the coast of the Pacific, would be effected in . case of the execution of the great canal across the isthmus of Tehuantepec, so much spoken of. The principal objects of export are gold and silver, either in bullion, comed, or worked up in various ways; cochincal, sugar, flour, indigo, soft meat, dried vegetables, tanned hides, sarsaparilla, vamila, jalap, soap, Campeachy wood, and punento of Tabasco. Among the articles imported are woollen cloths, silks of Lyons, linen from Germany, white and printed calicoes from France, England and the U. States, paper, china, spirits, cacao, quicksilver, iron, steel, wine, wax, jewelry, watches and clocks, and all kinds of omaments. In 1826, 1267 vessels entered the ports of the republic. The chief port of Mexico is Vera Cruz. Mexico, the capital, is a commercial place, as we might easily suppose to be the case in a country in which very little is manufactured, and which is so fertile. A part of the commerce of the U. States with Mexico is carried on by means of caravans, which go from the state of Missouri to Santa Fé, in Texas. The smuggling trade in Mexico is very great. The chief commercial cities of Mexico are Acapulco and Vera Cruz. Acapulco, or Los Reyes carries on a considerable trade with the Philippines, and the coasts of Quito and Peru. To Manilla a galleon used to be sent from this port every year, freighted with silver, cochmeal, cacao, sweet oil, Spanish wool and European toys. This brought back muslins, printed linen, silks,

Chinese goods, groceries, spices and precious stones. Guatimala is celebrated for its indigo, which is noted for its hardness,

lustre and weight.

SOUTH AMERICA. South America has many articles of trade. The mineral treasures of the country are boundless. In the 16th century, gold and silver existed in such profusion, that, for 25 years, \$13,000,000 are said to have been annually exported to Spain from Peru alone. exclusive of what was sent in bars. These especially in the Cordilleras; but, in addition to gold and silver, this immeasurable chain of mountains affords copper, lead, iron and platma. The richest mines of South America are those of the province Las Charcas, in the territory of the former viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. There are, in that district, 30 gold names, 27 silver mines, 7 copper, 1 tm, and 7 lead mines. The richest of these mines are those of Potosi, which are situated near the sources of the La Plata. Acosta's account, that, during 40 years that the mines had been wrought, they had yielded \$12,000,000,000 is much exaggerated. But we gather from official reports, that, from the time of the discovery of America till 1538, the fifth part, accruing to the king, of all the silver obtained from the mines of Potosi, and registered, amounted to \$395,619,000, so that, when 39 years had clapsed from the discovery of America, \$51,255,043 were obtained annually, exclusive of the considerable quantities which undoubtedly were conveyed from the country secretly, and without the payment of duties, and of that which was used for making silver vessels, images and ornaments for the monasteries and churches, which must have amounted to an unmense sum, since all the religious establishments in the country, and especially in the city of Potosi, were very rich in silver vessels. But, whether owing to the exhaustion of the nines themselves, or the faulty management of them, the profits have since diminished. The other exports from South America, although the Spanish and Portuguese directed their chief attention to the obtaining of metals, are very considerable. The following are · the principal: cochmeal, indigo, cacao, the Peruvian bark, hides, ox horns, tallow, wax, cotton, wool, flax, hemp, tobacco, sugar, coffee, guiger, pimento, jalap, sarsaparilft, ipecacuanha, guaiacum, dragon's blood, and various other medicinal gums, dye-wood, ebony, mahogany, emeralds, various kinds of balsams, &c.

The chief commercial cities of South America are Rio Janeiro, Buenos Ayres, Lima, Carthagena, Caracas, Potosi and Bahia. Buenos Ayres was in possession of the transit trade of all the Spanish possessions in America, and, before the beginning of the revolution, was the mart of the trade of the mother country and its The principal source of gain colonies. for Caracas is the carao plant, as it sup-plies nearly two thirds of the European demand. The hides and skins which it precious metals are found throughout Peru, exports are superior to those of Buenos Chile, and the upper section of Tucuman, Ayres; and the rich ore from the copper mines of Aroa is superior to the Swedish, or to that of Coguimbo, in Chile. The internal trade of South America, especially between Buenos Ayres and Peru, is very considerable. That with the Indian tribes, is chiefly in the way of barter; axes, kmyes, sessors, swords, necklaces, mirrors, and coarse cotton and woollen goods, being exchanged for the productions of the country, especially the celebrated Paraguay tea, and some fine furs.

Brazil has three great commercial cities Rio Janeiro, Bahia, or St. Salvador, and Pernambuco. The exports are, chiefly, cotton, indigo, sugar, coffee, rice, tobacco, tallow, mahogany, Peruvian bark, specacuanha, hides, gold, cacao, varalla, the diamond, the topaz, chrysolite, amethyst, and other precious stones, and a great variety of dye-stuffs, balsams and gums, dried beef, and India-rubber shoes. greater part of the Brazilian trade is in the hands of the English. The imports are non, steel, copper utensils, salt, woollen cloths, linen, calicoes, hats, shoes of all kinds, china, glass-ware, trinkets, books, paper, watches, clocks, and particularly. East India goods, such as are not raised in Brazil. Portugal sends to Brazil wine, oil, spirits, hats; the U. States, flour, turpentine and furniture. Naval munitions, sulors' clothes and arms are likewise imported.

Colombia, consisting of Venezuela and New Grenada, says Alex, Humboldt, has received from nature a greater and richer variety of vegetable, products, suited for commerce, than any other country of Spanish America; yet its commerce has been declining every year since its separation from Spain. In Colombia, Peruvian bark is found of the best quality and in the greatest quantity. Coffee, indigo, sugar, cotton, cacao, ipecacuanha, the tobucco of Varinas, hides and dried meat,

pearls, gold and platina, &c., are obtained in this highly favored country. Its impolts embrace all kinds of manufactured

most every thing which is wanted by the indolent inhabitants, and made by the hands of men; for the people themselves manufacture hardly any thing. Humboldt, has estimated the exports of Colombia, at \$9,000,000, and its imports at \$11,200,000. Mollien estimates the former \$8,000,000, and the latter at \$10,000,000. The state of this country, at the present moment, prevents the possibility of obtaining accurate information on this subject. The ports of La Guayra (harbor of Caracas), Rio del Hacha, St. Martha, Carthagena, Chagres, Porto Cabello, Panama and Guayaquil are the most frequented by strangers. The English, from Jamaica, the Americans and French, are the nations who trade principally with the Colombians in the Atlantic ports; the Peruvian vessels carry on the coasting · trade on the Pacific.

Buenos Ayres, like all the other South American states, is m an unsettled The chief exports of this condition. country are horse and ox hides; in fact, Buenos Ayres may be called, by way of eminence, the country of cattle. Its mports include all the manufactured articles which the inhabitants make use of. land sends thither woollen and cotton cloth, cutlery, hardware, furniture, saddlery, hats, porter and cheese; the U. States, lumber, cod-fish, mackerel and herring, leather, gunpowder, provisions; from Brazil are sent sugar, coffee, cotton, rum; steel and non from the north of Europe; and France sends her manufactures. The exports and imports are estimated at \$9,000,000.

The commerce of Chile is, at present, in a low condition. Its rich inness are poorly managed, and the political state of the country prevents its commerce from acquiring that activity which it might easily attain by the export of the precious metals of the country to the East Ludies, to give in return for sugar and cotton. It could also provide Peru with salt meat, and take in return coffee, sugar, &c. Caldeleugh estimates the English importations into Valparaiso, in 1822, at 4,071,250 francs, and Lowe at 47,248,625 francs, for the same year. The U. States send thirther flour.

Peru trades with the U. States, with Fairope, the Philippine islands, Guadinala and Chile, and, by land, with Buenos Ayres. Its exports are chiefly gold and silver, wine, brandy, sugar, pimento, Peruvian bark, salt, vicuna wool and coarse woollens. It receives, in return, from the U.

goods, oil, soap, ropes, paper, in fact almost every thing which is wanted by the indolent inhabitants, and made by the hands of men; for the people themselves manufacture hardly any thing. Humboldt has estimated the exports of Colombia, at \$9,000,000, and its imports at \$11,260,000.

M. Mollien estimates the former at \$81,000,000, and the latter at \$10,000,000.

The state of this country, at the present

The commerce of Central America, or Guatimala, is increasing in activity. Co-Ionial commodities, chiefly sugar, coffee, cacho, cotton, indigo, cochineal, ebony and logwood (from the bay of Honduras), are the principal exports sent to Europe and some of the U. States. The imports are linen, from Germany and France; woollen cloths, silks and wines, from France; English and French calicoes; flour, and some manufactured goods, from the U. States. This country is well adapted for commerce, on account of its fine harbors and several navigable rivers. A canal across the isthmus would be of vast benefit to this country; in fact, the execution of such a canal would bear a similar-ity to some of those great inventions, which have changed the face of the world.

The English, Dutch and French possessions in South America are Demerara, Berbice, Essequibo, Surinam and Cayenne. From Cayenne are exported cloves, Cayenne pepper, annotta, sugar, cotton, coffee and cacao; from Berbice, rum, sugar, cotton, cacao, &c.; from Demerara, Sunmain and Essequibo, sugar, rum, cotton, coffee and molasses.

West Indies. The chief islands which constitute the West Indies are Cuba, St. Domingo, or Hayti, Jamaica, Barbadoes, Dominica, St. Christopher, or St. Kitt's, Curação and Guadaloupe. They have all very nearly the same productions, viz. sugar, coffee, wax, ginger and other spices, mastich, aloes, vanilla, quassia, manioc, maize, cacao, tobacco, midigo, cotton, molasses, mahogany, long peppers, lignumvite, Campeachy wood, yellow wood, gums, tortoise-shell, rum, pimento, &c. Before St. Domingo or Haytr became an independent government of blacks, it was the depot of the goods brought from Havanna, Vera Cruz, Guatimala, Carthagena and Venezuela; but, since that event, Jamaica has been the magazine of all goods from the gulf of Mexico. Trinidad is the great seat of the contraband trade with Cumana, Barcelona, Margarita and Guiana. The imports are manufactures of all kinds, wme, flour, and, formerly, slaves,

The West Indies form one great source of the commerce of the world; and we must refer the reader, for more particular information, to the articles on the different islands.

. . A new path has been laid open to the ... commerce of the world by the British, in the Southern ocean, where, of late, the Sandwich, the Friendly and the Society islands have been taken within the circle of European and American intercourse; and in Australia and Van Diemen's land, a great market has been established for the exchange of British manufactures for the productions of nature; while the North Americans have attempted to found commercial settlements on the Washington (Nukahiva) and other islands of the Pacific. (Sec' Moreau de Jonnes Du Commerce extérieur du XIXme Siècle, 2 vols., Paris, 1826.) In 1828, the imports from New Holland and the South sea islands, into Great Britain, amounted to £83,552, and the exports to £267,529.

COMMERCIAL COURTS are tribunals distifict from the ordinary civil courts, and are established in commercial towns, or within certain districts, to settle disputes with regard to rights and obligations between persons engaged in trade, with the assistance of experienced merchants, by a brief process, according to equitable principles. It is doubtful whether the commercial nations of antiquity had any commercial tribunals of this sort. The general introduction of them began in the middle The first of these tribunals was probably that established at Pisa, in the 11th century, and the basis of its decisions. was the code of maritime laws of Pisa, confirmed by pope Gregory VII, in 1075, from which the Consolato del Mare may have been, in part, borrowed. At first, the commercial tribunals were not so much courts established by government as arbiters of disputes, freely chosen by the merchants, and confirmed by the governments. This is evident from the first chapter of the Consolato del Mare, which runs thus :-"The good seamen, ship-owners, and seafaring people generally, are accustomed to assemble on Christmas evening of every year, either all or the greater part of them, at a place of their appointment, and when nearly all are convened, they appoint, not by lot, but by vote, two worthy men, experienced in all maritime affairs, for their consuls, and another, of the same occupation, as judge of appeal. To him are made all appeals from the sentence of the consuls." Under the name of commercial consuls, such committees of arbitration

were appointed in all the great commercial cities of Europe; and, in the course of time, they really became tribunals of justine. tice, and were, in part at least, administered by men of legal learning and expe-Pope Paul III confirmed the commercial consuls in Rome. Francis II. in 1560, granted to the Parisian merchants particular arbiters for the adjustment of commercial disputes, and in 1563 was established the Parisian court of commerce, consisting of a judge and four con-The same thing soon followed inall the important commercial towns of France. In London, Henry VII appointed particular commercial judges. president of the commercial tribunal for the Hanse towns, established in 1447, bore the name of alderman. At Nuremberg, in 1621, a sumlar tribunal was instituted under the name of inspectors of the markets (marktvorsteher). There was one, also, in Botzen, in 1630. The diets of the empire even called upon the German princes and commercial cities to follow this example. as the decrees of the empire of 1654 and 1668, and the decree of the imperial conmassion of Oct. 10, 1668, show. In many of these cates, as in Frankfort on the Mame, and in Leipsic, they were not so much independent authorities as delegates from the city councils. When commercial courts take cognizance particularly or solely of disputes relating to maritime affairs, they are called courts of admiralty. Such a court was creeted in Hamburg in 1623. Among the tribunals more recently established are the French, formed in 1808, according to the provisions of the "burg commercial court, of the same kind. which dates from the time when Hamburg was the chief city of a French department; this was, in 1816, retained with some modifications. Their internal regulations commonly require that a part of the members, or, at least, the presidents. should be lawyers: the rest are, for the most part, experienced merchants, who are better adapted than regular judges to give counsel on commercial affairs, with which they are more acquainted, and which, very often, are not to be reduced to sumple principles of law, but are to be decided according to commercial practice. Their jurisdiction commonly extends over all commercial disputes, whether occurring during the fairs, or at other times, matters of exchange, insurance, freight, bottomry, average, &c., and, further, over bankrupts, the laring of shops and stores, clerks and apprentices, the debts

of those who receive goods from merchants upon credit; and all natives and foreigners who traffic in the place, and are found there, all ship-owners, contractors for transporting goods, brokers, factors, &c., are obliged to submit to their decisons. They do as much as possible by oral investigation; and the intention of their institution is, that they shall avoid the long and formal process of other courts. But when the difficulty and confusion of the matters in dispute occasion the necessity of an investigation in wridespatch of these courts consists principally in this -that the defendant is orally summoned, once, or several times, to appear before them, at an early day, and, if be twice fails to come, is brought by force; are complaint is then made orally, both parties are heard, and sentence is given, if possible, immediately after. But, as this can seldom be done, and most cases require reference to written documents, a day not far distant is appointed for the answer to the complaint, and for the eviience on both sides, and the time is seldom or never prolonged. The remedies against a sentence (such as revision, restiution, & c.; see Hamburg Code of Commeral Procedure of Dec. 15, 1515) must be sought from the same judges, and against ensily obtained. Appeals are only allowed ar very important cases, and upon the deposit of a large sum as a pledge that the tinal decision shall be obeyed without deay. The principal features of this pro-vess are found in the Consolato del Marc , rec chapters 84-31), and form the basis of most commercial codes — According to die French code, each tubun d'consists of Epresident, several judges (not more than 8, and not less than 2, in number , together with several persons, who, in case of a presence of business, become assistant .ndges (viec judges+ *suppleans*), a clerk of the court (graffier), and several interior onlcers (huissiers) (Code de Commerce, livie 3. at 1,8615-24.) The members of a comnereal inbanal are chesen from anong the most respectable merchants. Every merclaint 30 years of age, who has done besihess nean honorable manner for 5 Years, can be appointed judge or assisant judge The presidence must be 40 years old, and have already exercised the office of judge. The election is made by secret ballot. The members elect take an oath before entering upon their office, which they hold for 2 years; they receive no salary, and cannot be reelected until a year after the expiration of their term. The rules 33

vol. m.

of the commercial tribunal are to be found . under the 25th title of the 2d book of the Civil Code, and are very similar to those of the Consolato del Mare. From the sentence of these tribunals appeal is made to the court of appeal within whose jurisdiction they happen to be. (See Commercial. Luw.)

COMMERCIAL LAW (or the law merchant) is that which relates to trade, navigation, maritime contracts, such as those of insurance, bottomry, bills of lading, charter-parties, scamen's wages, general ting, recourse is had thereto. The greater vaverage, and also to bills of exchange, bills of credit, factors and agents. Lord Mansfield describes it as a branch of the public law, and applied to its universal adoption the language of Cicero respecting the great principles of morals and eternal justree-nee crit alia les Roma, alia Athenis. The body of rules constituting this law is substantially the same in the U. States and Europe, the rules, treatises and decisions of one country and one age being, in general, applicable to the questions arising in any other. The reason is obvious why this law should be common to different nations, for it regulates those contracts and transactions in which they come in contact, being a sort of neutral ground between their hostile interests, institutions, customs and prejudices. National law, which regulares the conduct of different nations towards each other, is distinguished from manume law, by which private contracts between individuals are regu-"Said The first collection of marine laws was that of Rhodes, of which some fragments have come down to us in the Digest of Justiman, in the title De Lege Rhadia ia Jaclu, the collection under the title of Rhodum Lews, published at Basle in 1561, and at Frankfort in 1596, being generally considered as epurious. This title and that Dr Naulico Fanore recognise the tast broad principles on the subjects of jettison and maritime law. The law a ever dorn actions, in the Digest, also fransreas to us then principles as to the liability of the owners for the acts and contracts of the master of a vessel. The remaining rates and principles by which the comin retal transactions of the ancients, in the Mediceranean, were governed, have, for the most part, passed into oblivion. The reason of so small a space being assigned to this branch of jurispiudence, in the Roman laws, may be the low estimation in which trade was held by the Romans, who prohibited into of birth and rank from engaging in commerce, of which the code (4, 63, 3) speaks contemptuously; and

Cicero says it was not fitting that the same people should be both the porters and the masters of the world. The Greeks, being the merchants and navigators of the an-. cients, adopted the Rhodian laws, with modifications. The Atheman law, on the subject of maritime loans, is stated particularly in Boeckh's Economy of Athens, b.,1; sec. 23, from which it appears that the rules on this subject were very definitely settled. The laws of trade naturally followed the trade which they were-Accordingly, we designed to regulate. find them first revived in the middle ages, on the shores of the same sea, in one of the islands of which they had their origin: a collection of them being made at Amalfi, a city within the limits of the present kingdom of Naples, about the time of the first crusade, towards the close of the 11th century, called the Amalfitan Table, the anthority of which was acknowledged throughout Italy. The origin of the compilation of sea laws, which passes under the title of Consolato del Mare, though mvolved in soline obscurity, is most generally assigned to the city of Barcelona, in Spam. Some writers, however, and partieularly Azum, claim the honor of this collection also for Italy. But Casaregis, a profound commercial jurist, who published an edition of it, in Italian, at Venice, in 1737, and M. Boucher, who published a French translation in 1808, from what he considers the original edition of Barcelona of 1494, both admit the Spanish claim. These laws are supposed by M. Boucher to have been adopted and in use as early as the 9th century, and their authority waacknowledged in all the maritime counthics of Europe, and some of the articles of this collection form a part of the present commercial law of all civilized nations. It has been translated into German, also, but no entire English translation has yet been made. It is an ill-arranged, confised , complation; and, though it is interesting as a historical record of the marine laws and customs of the middle ages, a large proportion of its provisions do not apply to the modes of transacting business and making contracts in modern times. The Jugemens d'Oléron (or Laws of Oleron' are supposed to have been compiled about the time of Richard I; and the hearr of this collection, like that of the Consolato, from which it is partly borrowed, is in dispute, being claimed for the French by Vahn, Emerigon and Ofeirae, who say it was made by order of queen Eleanor, duchess of Guienne, for the use of that province, and adopted by her son Richard I, duke of Gin-

enne. But Selden, Coke and Blackstone assert that it is an English work, published hy Richard I, in his character of king of England. The maritume colles of Wisbuy and the Hanse towns are also of historical celebrity, and constitute a part. of the legal antiquities of this branch of jurisprudence. These were the principal marme codes down to 1673, the date of . the French ordinance of commerce, which treated largely of bills of exchange, and negotiable paper. In 1681 was published, also, the French Ordinance of Marine, one of the most glorious monuments of the reign of Louis XIV. It was framed under the influence of Colbert, and ments all its celebrity, being comprehensive, and including provisions, not only on many of the subjects of commercial law, as we have defined its limits, but, also, very ample/regulations on the subject of prizes These ordinances are the foundation of the present system of marme law in Enrope and the U. States. Valm's commentary upon the Ordmance of the Marine, published in 1760, is a profound, original, comprehensive, learned and accurate In 1763, he also published his commentances on the provisions of the ordinance in relation to prizes. About 20 years afterwards (1782), Emergon pubh-he I his musterly treatise on insurance. The fwo ordinances, with the commentary of Valm, and the treatise of Emerigon, made the comperent law a science, of which the principles were now settled, and then application also traced out into a great mumber of examples. It was now in the power of jurists, pidges and legislators to make every new question and case that should arise only a confimatice and extension, in application, of do time which had been established upon conclusive reasons, and made parts of a harmomous system; and all the commercial nations have adopted the system thus formed. At constitutes the present French code of commerce, and appears every where in the Brush, American and continental treatises and decisions. The other French writers of greatest celebray. on this branch of law, are Pothier, Clerrae and Boncher Mr. Jacobsen, a puriscon! \* sult of Altona, has published a useful work on the subject of sea laws. 'The carlier English writers on commercial law were Malyaes (a merchant), Molloy (a lawyer), Beawes (a merchant), Postlethwaite, Magens (a dispacheur, or adjuster of marme losses, originally of Hamburg, afterwards of London) and Wiskett (a merchant). But the maring law cannot be considered

as having become a branch of the general science of jurisprudence in England, until the time of lord Mansfield, who appears to have had some considerable acquaintance with the treatise of Valin, from which he drew principles and reasons, and incorporated them into the reluctant common law. By degrees, during his judicial career, this branch of jurisprudence gained popularity, and, from that time, has occupied an important part of the British legal administration, though very few legisla-tive enactments have either disturbed or promoted its progress. Though the marstime law in that country continued in a very rude and undigested state, long after it was airanged into an admirable system in France, yet the assiduity with which it has been cultivated since its introduction, and the splendid talents which have been brought to its illustration, have contributed to advance it with a rapid progress. Among the ornaments of this branch of law, we ought particularly to mention lord Stowell, judge of the British high court of admiralty, a junist and judge unsurpassed in comprehensiveness of learning, depth, justices and clearness of thinking, cogency of reasoning, richness of illustration and bulkancy of expression. The present chief-justice of the court of king's bench, lord Tenterden, has also, by his learned and well arranged treatise on merchant shipping, as well as by his opinions from the bench, contributed very materrally to the present advanced state of Bruish commercial purspipalence. The other principal writers on this law ar-Millar, Park, Marshall, Bayley, Chitty, Lawes, Holt and Paneels . Nor have the U. States been alle speciators of this improvement in a branch of law in which their industry and prosperity are so decepty interested. Though they have supplied: but few original systematic treatises and digests, yet, in the numerous important and interesting questions that have been brought under discussion before the legal tribunals, the research, comprehensive views and logical power displayed both by the counsel and the courts, will support a comparison with those of their European contemporaries, who might derive very useful edditions to their own adjudications, particularly on the subjects of merchants' shipping and insurance, from the American reports. It is not, perhaps, invidious to distinguish, among the most enument of those who have contributed to the clucidation of the commercial law, chief-justice Marshall and justices Washington and Story, of the supreme court of . These, being reported, and confirmed by

the U. States, and chancellor Kent of New York.

Commenson, Philibert, a botanist, born 1727, at Chatillon-les-Dombes, was a doctor of medicine in Montpellier. In 1767, at the command of the king of France, he accompanied Bougainville (q. v.) on his voyage round the world. From the name of a young French lady, Hortense Barre, who accompanied him in a man's dress, he called a flower, now well known, Hor- . tensia. During this voyage, he died on the Isle de France, in 1773. He wrote, among other things, a botanical martyrology-a biography of those who have fallen victims to their efforts in the cause of botany. He left his plants, drawings and papers to the royal cabinet at Paris.

COMMINES. (See Comines.) COMMITTLE, Large deliberative assemblies, with a great variety of business before them, are unable to discuss and investigate, sufficiently, many subjects on which they are obliged to act. Committees, therefore, are appointed, to examine and to report to the assembly. Committees have a right to choose their chairman. In the English parliament and the legislative bodies in the United States, as, in fact, in all legislative bodies in representative governments, there are select and ading committees. The r cench changle is an coyaled into bireaux. The standing committees are appointed, in England and the United States, by the speaker or president of the house, at the beginning of each session. In the English parliament, the standing committees appointed arevery session are those of privileges and elections, of religion, of guevances, of courts of justice, and of trade, though only the first mentioned acts. In the congress of the U. States, the standing committees are very numerous; some of the most important are those of elections, of ways and means, of commerce, of public lands, ; of the judiciary, of public expenditures, of Indian affairs, of foreign affairs, of manufactures, &c. In fact, business is done by means of committees much more in the American congress than in the Engish parliament. The French chamber, on the request of five members, must

resolve itself into a secret committee. Committee of the Whole. Matters of great concernment are usually referred to a committee of the whole house, where general principles are digested in the form of resolutions, which are debated and amended, till they take a shape which meets the approbation of the majority.

the house, are then referred to one or more sense of the whole assembly is better taken in committee, because in all com-'mittees every one speaks as often as he , pleases. They generally acquiesce in the charman named by the speaker, but, like. all other committees, have a right to elect their charman, some member, by con-sent, putting the question. When the house is desirous of forming itself into a committee, the speaker, on motion, puts the question whether the house will resolve itself into a committee of the whole, to take into consideration such a matter, naming it. No previous question can be put in a committee; nor can this cominitiee adjourn, as others may; but, if their business is unfinished when the time of separation arrives, a motion is made for rising, and the chairman reports that the committee of the whole have, according to order, had under their consideration such a matter, and have made progress therein, but, not having bad time to go through the same, have directed him to ask leave to sit again. The question is then put whether the request shall be granted, and, if so, at what true the house will again resolve itself into a committee But, if they have gone through the matter referred to them, the charman reports, either immediately, or, if the house wish, st a later period. (See Jeffersen's Manad of Parliamentary Practice, pp. 33, 39.)

COMMITTEE OF PUBLIC SALITY (Comité de Salut Public). Under the name, the Mountain party or Terrors see Terror, Rugn of), in the rational convention (see France), concealed the dictatorial power which they had assumed to overthrow the Girondists (q. v.) and the modcrate party, that the Mountain party neight rule, and the republic triumph over its domestic and foreignementes. The revolutionary tribunal was subservient to this committee, which was at first composed of 9, then of 12 members. The commuttee was established April 6th, 1793, in the stead of the comité de défense genérale, which had existed herdly 10 days; and the convention, from the midst of which its members (among them Danton, Barrere, Cambon) were chosen, intrusted it with unlimited power of secret deliberation, and of supervising the ministers. It was, in every case, to provide for the public welfare as no own judgment should dietate; and therefore, after the lapse of a few months, the right of unprisonment

was also given it. The prevailing party select committees, according as the subject acted on the ground that France, threat-divides itself into one or more bills. The cared from within and without, could not be governed as if at peace (as the Girondists wished), but could only be saved by desperate measures, as in times of the greatest danger. But, after the downfall of the Girondists, June 1st and 2d, 1793, when the Mountain, on the recom-mendation of the committee of safety. declared that the population of France consisted of but two parties, patriots and enemies of the revolution, and consigned the latter to the persecution of all good citizens, terror took the place of law Robespierre (q. v.) soon afterwards, July 27, 1793, became a member of the committee of safety, the members of which were appointed monthly; but the old members were, at this period, commonly redected. From this time, the committee governed the Mountain party, and, through n, the convention. As the sole rule of his conduct, Robespierre declared that the mani-spring of a popular government in a state of revolution was *la verfu<sub>i</sub>et la terreur !* With him, and maccordance with his views St. Just, Couthon, Billaud de Varennes, Collot d'Herbois and Hérault de Séchelles acted in the comme. Carnot (q. likewise a namber of discommittee of public safety, confined bimself to the direction of the armes, and left to his celleagues the afflins of the interior. motion of these men, the new constitution was suspended for a time, and the revoluborary government conferred on the core unitee of safety, by a decree of the convention, of Dec. 4, 1793. The committee now instituted in all the communes of the republic, as judges of the suspected, ectolutionary committees, composed of the mest furious zealots: the number of these inew tribinais was as great as 20,000 The last remaining forms of regular p.o. cess were abolished; their place was supplied by violence, and often by avairce and folly. In this time of internal revolutions, and danger from without, it was not in the power of man to restrain the exasperated fury, which, probably, alone prevent ed France from being conquered. Final . ly, Danton, who had absented himself for a time from the committee, on account of the influence of Robespierre, declared . himself against this system of bloodshed; and Robespierre himself acquiesced in the condemnation of the ringleaders of the Paris mob (March 24, 1794), among whom was Hébert (q. v.); but, soon after (April 5), Danton, with Hérault de Séchelles, was himself overthrown by Robes '

pierre. Till July 28,1794, he now remained master of the lives of thirty millions of men. He appointed Fouquier-Tinville (q. v.) public accuser. Prisons were multiplied and crowded; the prisoners were cruelly treated, betrayed by spics, and condemned without being allowed the privilege of defence; the property of all unprisoned on suspicion was confiscated, and the guillotine remained en permanence. The same violence was practised in the provinces by some of the delegates of the committee of safety, especially Collot d'Herboss, Chr., ingeniously this employé au comité de salut rier (q. v.) and Jos. le Bon. Among the public preserved a number of the arrested numberless victims of this system were the noble Malesherbes (q. v.) and the celebrated Lavoisier. (q. v.) The members of the committee of public safety, and of the comité de sureté générale, at last disagreed among themselves. Each committee contained three parties. These, and not Tallien, were the real causes of the 9th Thermdor. In the committee of public safety, Robespierre, Couthon and St. Just (" gens de la haute main") formed one party; Barrère, Billand and Collot d'Herbois ("les gens revolutionnaires"), another , and Carnot, Preur and Lindel ("les gens d'eramen"), a third. In the comits de surcté ginérale, one party comprised Vader, Amar, Jagot, Louis (du bas Rhin) and Voulland (the "gens d'expédition"), to a second belonged Danton and Lebas ("crouteurs"); to the third, Moyse Bayle, Lavicomterie, Ehe Lacoste, Dubarran ("les gens de contrepoids"). Robespierre attempted to remove the unyielding Carnot from the committee of safety. On the other hand, Billand de Varennes labored to effect Robespierre's downfall. Couthon, St. Just, the Jacobins, and the communic of Paris, alone adhered to Robespierre. But when St. Just actually proposed, in the committee, a dictator-hip for the safety of the state, an opposition was raised against Robespierre, in the national costvention, by Vadier, Collot d'Herbois, Billand de Varennes, and especially by Talhen (q. v.) and Fréron; the dictator and his faction were proscribed, and the victory of Bairas (q. v.), on the 9th Thermdor, (July 27), brought Robespierre, his brother, St. Just, Couthon, &c., 105 m all, to the scaffold, July 28. The convention now recovered its authority; the Jacobins and the partisans of terrorism (la queue de Robespierre) were completely overthrown; at the same time the convention gave the committee of safety and the revolutionary tribunal a more limited power and juris-The bloody despotsm ceased; and when a new constitution introduced

(Oct. 28, 1794) a directorial government (see Directory), the convention was dissolved, and with it sank into its accursed grave the revolutionary government, the reign of terror, and the committee of public safety.—See Mémoires inédits de Senar (secretary-general of the committee, who died in 1796), or Révélations puisées dans les Cartons des Comités de Salut Public et de Sureté Générale (2d ed., Paris, 1824). Mem. Historiques de M. de la Bussière (Legendre's private secretary) narrate how from condemnation.

Commonous (corrupted from the Span-15h commendador); a general officer in the British marine, invested with the coinmand of a detachment of ships of war destined for any particular enterprise. He returns this title only during the continuance of the expedition, during which he has the rank of a brigadier-general in the army, and his ship is distinguished from others in his squadron by a broad, red pendant. The eldest captain of three or more vegsels croising in company is often called commodore by courtesy. In the U. Stales, the title commodore is only given by courtesy, not efficially.—Commodore ship, in a fleet of merchantmen, is the convoy and principal ship, which leads the other vessels, and keeps them together, bearing a hght m her top.

Commodus Antoninus (L. Ælius Aurehus), born A. D. 161, son of Marcus Aurehus and of Anna Faustma, daughter of Autonomy Prus, gave early proofs of his cruel and veluptuous character. a boy of 12 years old, he ordered the overseer of his bath to be thrown into the furnace, because his bath was too hot. His father, who hoped to correct him by mildness and his own example; permitted him early to partake in the government, conferred on hun the office of tribune, and, in his 16th year, the dignity of consul, and soon afterwards the titles of Augustus and father of the country. He married him to Crispina, daughter of Bruttius Priesens. On the death of Marcus Aurelius, A. D. 180, Commodus ascended the throne, and showed himself a more execrable monster than even Caligula, Domitian or Nero. For his amusement, he cut asunder persons whom he met, put out their eyes, mutilated their noses, ears, &c. He was endowed with extraordinary strength, and often appeared, in mitation of Hercules, dressed in a lion's skin, and armed with a club. Three hundred concubines, and as many boys, even the lowest prostitutes of

33\*

Rome, were not sufficient to satisfy his infamous lusts. He had even an incestuous intorcourse with his sisters, and killed one of them (Lucilla), who had refused to submitto his wishes, and had concerted a conspiracy against him. To fill the treasury, exhausted by his extravagances, he imposed unusual taxes upon the people, sold goveruments and offices to the highest bidder, and pardoned criminals for money. To display his strength and skill in arms, he appeared publicly on the amphitheatre. times, and always to have been victorious. Immediately after ascending the throne, Commodus concluded an inglorious peace with the Quadi and with other German nations. In Britain, his valiant general Ulpius Marcellus gamed important victories over the Caledonians; on account of which Commodus took the fitles of imperator and Britannicus. The administration of affairs had been, at first, left to his freedman Anterus, who was accused of having seduced the emperor, and was killed by the commanders of the body guard. Commodus, after taking a bloody revenge for the death of his favorite, placed areother freedman, Cleander, at the helm of state. A part of the city having been consumed by fire, and the people having been reduced to despair by famine, disturbances broke out, and the emperor was obliged to consent to the death of his manster, who was charged with being the author of these calamnies. On the 1st of January, A. D. 193, he intended to appear at the same time as consul and gladiator, after having put to death the two consuls elect. He was so much emaged by the opposition of his friends to this design, that he resolved on their death. The tablets upon which he had written their pames were found by accident, and given to one of his concubines (Marcia), who, with surprise, found herself among the number conspired, with the rest, against the life of the emperor. They administered porson to him, and, as the poison operated too slowly, he was strangled by the hands of his favorne gladiator, Narcissus (Dec. 31, 192). On the news of his death, which was reported to be the consequence of an apoplexy, the senate declared him an enemy of the state, ordered his statues to be broken to pieces, and his name to be crased from all public inscriptions. He perished at the age of 31 years and 9 months, after a reign of 124 years. Rome was indebted to hun for her handsomest baths the therma Intonunana. established, also, an African fleet, in addition to the Egyptian one, for the purpose of supplying the city with corn.

Common Carriers are persons whose business and employment is carrying goods for hire, as distinguished from those who agree to carry in any particular Carriers are one species of instances. The material question in the luntees. contract relates to the degree of care which the carrier is obliged to exercise. By the civil law, he is required to use ordinary diligence, that is, the care and dili-He is said to have fought in this way 735 agence used by a man of common prudence in like cases. The French code, follows the civil law very nearly, being, however, a little more strict, as it makes the carrier answerable for the goods, except in cases of superior force, or inevitable accident, or damage arising from the quality of the articles. Down to the time of Henry VIII, the English law seems not to have imposed on the common carrier a greater responsibility than the French code. But, since the time of Ehzabeth, he has been held answerable for all losses and damage not arising from the perishable nature of the attack, the act of God, as it is called, or of a public enemy. Thus he is answerable for loss by robbers, for which the French code would excuse hum. The reason of this strictness, given by chief-justice Holt in the case of Coggs vs. Bernard (Raymond's Reports, vol. n, p. 900), is to provide "for the safety of all persons, the necessity of whose affairs obliges them to resort to those sorts of persons, that they may be safe in their ways of dealing; for else these carriers might have an opportunity of undoing all persons that have any dealings with them, by conbining with thieves, and yet doing it in such a clandestine manner as would not be possible to be discovered." In regard to the continuance of the responsibility, in a case of the carriage of hops from Stourport to Manchester, and thence to Stockport, they were carried to Man chester by one set of carriers on the canal, where they were stored in their storehouse, until they should be taken by another set of carriers, to be forwarded to Stockport, and, being so stored, were burnt. The goods were considered as being in the defendants' hands, not in their character of carriers, but in that of warehouse-men; and so they were held not to be hable. Lord Kenyon said, "The case of a carrier stands by itself on peculiar grounds; he is held responsible as an maurer; but I do not see how we can couple the character of a carrier with that of a warehouse-man.", In another case

against the same company by Hyde (reported in Term Reports, vol. v, p. 389), the goods were brought to Manchester, to, which place they had been brought and stored in the duke of Bridgewater's storehouse, where they were consumed by fire. \*The company had charged for cartage from this store-house to the consignees' store. The goods were, from this circumstance, considered to be in the hands of the defendants, as common carriers; and they were held hable for their value. among the inevitable accidents denonimated acts of God. The distinction was made upon this point in another case (reported in the Term Reports, vol. i, p. 27), of some bags of hops, which were in the course of transportation from London to Shaftesbury, deposited in a booth at Andover, and destroyed by a fire, which, at first, caught in a neighboring booth, at a hundred yards distance. It was said, in this ease, if the fire had been occasioned by lightning, the carriers would not have been answerable; but as it was occasioned by the agency or carelessness of man, they were answerable. This risk of fire does not seem to be one which ought to be imposed upon the carrier, upon the principle alleged in favor of his answering for a robbery, namely, for the purpose of preventing collusion with the robbers, for there appears to be no reason for collusion with incendiaries. The above cases show that the law of England considers persons employed in transporting goods on a ca-. I to be common carners. The rule extends, also, to persons employed in inland navigation generally; and some of the old cases appear to extend it to the coasting trade; but there is no guestion that it is not, under a bill of lading in the usual form, applicable to foreign invigation, the risk from pirates being universally acknowledged to be a "danger of the seas," for which the ship-owner is not responsible. A wagoner or coachman, whose business is carrying for hire, is answerable, as a common carrier; and the owners of the vehicle, who employ him, are also answerable in the same manner; but they are not answerable for any articles which it is known not to be their business to carry; as when the driver of a coach, intended by the proprietors, and ordinardy used, only for the transportation of pas- sengers, took a box to carry, without the consent or authority of the owners, intending to keep the fare himself, they were held not to be answerable for the loss of the box. (Bac. Abr., art. Carrier,

vol. i, p. 553.) A post-master was held not to be under so strict a responsibility. nor answerable for money enclosed in a letter stolen from his office, for he is a public officer; but chief-justice Hale thought he ought to be answerable upon the same principle and to the same extent as a common carrier. (Lord Raymond, vol. i, p. 646; Modern Reports, vol. xii, p. 477.) A person who undertakes to carry goods in a special instance, though it be for hire, is not answerable, under the Eng-These cases consider loss by fire as hot, lish law, as a common carrier; that is, he is not an insurer, but is only bound to use due diligence. So one who carries goods without receiving any compensation is answerable only for the loss and damage occasioned by his negligence or misconduct, and the reason of his being thus far answerable is his undertaking to carry the goods, which are accordingly put into his hands upon the presumption that he will not be guilty of any gross negligence in so doing. Mr. Dane, in the first volume of his Digest, says that the lawein respect to the hability of carriers is the same in the 1. States (excepting Lousiana and Florida) as in England. That the carrier is hable for any loss by his own negligence or tault, or that of the persons employed by hun, there is no doubt; but it admits of at least some doubt whether he is considered so far an insurer against losses not occasioned by his own fault, as in England. Chief-pistice Kent, indeed, has deended (Johnson's Reports, vol. x, p. 7) that, in case of no storm or other extraordinary peril, "the dangers of a well-known and dangerous rapid were at the risk of a common carrier, as much as the dangers of a broken and precipitous road." But no American case has yet gone the length of holding the carrier to be an insurer against inevitable loss by robbery or mevitable loss by fire, according to the Enghish doctrine. The gase coming nearest to such a rule is one decided in Virgmia, Murphy vs. Staton (reported in Mumford, vol. in, p. 239), in which it is held that a carner by boat navigation on James river was hable for the **va**lue of **cotton** lost in his boat, though the boat was gold and navigated with adequate skill. The origmal strictness of the English law, as far as it was grounded on the danger of collusion between carriers and robbers. seems hardly necessary to be kept up at present, either in that country or in the U. States; for, in general, in both countries, there is little danger of such collusion between the owners of bonts, stagecoaches, baggage-wagons or coasters, and

, tract is not modified by some very distinct and well-known usage, he must deliver the goods to the consignee, or to some person authorised by him to receive them, and the responsibility of the carrier continues till the goods are so delivered. The rule in England is the same in this respect. All those accidents which, in England, will excuse the carrier for damage exonerate him in the U. States. where, in attempting to shoot a bridge, the boat was driven, by a sudden gust of wind, against a pier, and sunk, the carrier was held not to be answerable. (Annes rs. Stevens, Strange's Reports, p. 125.) And so where a vessel, beating up Hudson river, in attempting to tack, ran aground, in consequence of the sudden fadure of the wind, the accident was considered to be at the risk of the owner of the goods. (Colt vs. M'Mechen, Johnson's Reports, vol. vi, p. 160.) But where any accident of this sort happens, in consequence of overloading the vessel, or otherwise, by the fault of the carrier, he is answerable; as, where goods every taken to be carried from Hull to Stockwith, and the vessel arrived at Stockwith, where a part of the cargo was discharged, but not the goods m question, which, being stowed under some that were to be carried on to Gainsborough, were left on board, the master int ading to deliver them on his return from Gamsborough, but the vessel was run aground, and the goods stannaged, in going to Gamsborough, the owners of the vessel were held responsible. (Ellis vs. Turner, Term Reports, vol. .in, p. 531.) The particular circumstances under which goods are taken to be transported, may modify and control the responsibility of the carrier; as where, in time of searcity, some wheat was taken by a boatman on a canal, to be carried from Wolverhampton to Manchester, on a day of the week on which it was not usual for his boateto go, and for the purpose of removing the wheat from a mob who showed a notous disposition, he was held hot to be answerable for damage done by some of the mob, who seized a part of the wheat, about four or five miles from Wolverhampton. (Edwards vs. Shmatt, East's Reports, vol. i, p. 604.) It was held, in this case, that the boutman did not take the wheat as a common carrier. And if the owner of the goods contract with one of the partners in the business of trans-

gangs of robbers. Where there is no portation, with a knowledge that he alone special stipulation as to the delivery of is to be benefited, and receive the fare, his goods by the carrier, and where the con- partners are held not to be liable. (Maule and Selwyn's Reports, vol. 1, p. 255.) But in Massachusetts, where a coachman, who was part owner of the coach, took a pack-. age of money to carry from Northampton to Springfield, for which and similar small packages, he was, according to the understanding between himself and his partner: exclusively entitled to the fare, his partner was, notwithstanding, held to be answeraor loss, as acts of God, will undoubtedly able as a common carrier. It does not appear that these terms of the agreement between the partners were known to the owners of the package, (Dwight rs. Brewster, Pickering's Reports, vol. 1, p 50.) But carriers may hand their responsibility by giving notice of the conditions upon which, and the extent to which, they , will be answerable. Thus, where carriers gave notice that they would not be answerable for any package over the value of tive pounds, unless entered and paid for as such, persons sending goods were bound by such notice. (Boston es. Donevan. Burnewall and . Ilderson's Reports, And so if they give notice vol. 1, p. 31.) that they will not be answerable for the faults of the master and mariners, provided the notice is so given as to afford ground of presumption of its reaching the party for whom the goods are carried, or in such way that it shall be his fault if he does not receive the notice.—The law relating to the responsibility of carriers has been thus more fully stated than is usual in this work in regard to legal subjects, because

it is one of general and popular interest. Comnon, Rights of . There are various km is of rights of common recognised by the common law, namely, of pasture. of piscary or fishing, of estovers or fuel, and of turbary or of digging turf. But the phrase usually means the right of pasturing cattle, horses, &c., m a certain field, or within a certain territory. And this again is of different kinds; as common in gross, when the grantee is not in the occupation of lands with which this right of pasturage is connected; and appendant, where a person, occupying a certain piece of arable land (or appurtenant, where he occupies such land or a house), has the right of pasturage in a certain other piece of land; and also a right of common par cause de vicinage, or by reason of vicinity,—the right which the tenants of a lord in one town had of pasturing their cattle with those of the tenants of another lord in another town. These rights, in England, have been mostly determined by prescrip-

tion or immemorial usage; by which also was regulated, in most instances, the kind of animals which might be turned upon the land (which were usually horses, oxen, cows and sheep, but not goats, hogs or geese), and the number, and the time of the year when they might be turned in.-In the U. States, there are not wanting instances of right of common, appurtenant and in gross; but the regulation of this species of rights does not occupy a great space in the laws. A law of the province of Massachusetts, of 1603, regulates the rights of common belonging to the freeholders of a town or village, by prescribing the number of cattle that each commoner might put upon the common; and there are rights of common appurtenant in New York, but these are most commonly rights' in gross, and the grant from one commoner to another generally specifies the number and kind of beasts to be pastured upon the common field, as "one cow right," or a right for a certain number of sheep, and the like.—Besides the articles on this subject in the abridgments, digests and general treatises, an elaborate work on rights of common was published in 1~24, by Mr. Woolrych of London.

Connor Law. The phrase "the common law" is a very familiar expression in English jurisprindence, and has various significations, or, rather, is used sometimes m a limited and sometimes in a more enlarged sense. In a large \* use, it comprehends the whole body of English law, as well the statutes passed by pathament as the general customary law of the realm. L. this manner, it is used an contradistinction to the Roman, or, as we call it, the cied law. In a more bruted sense, "the common law" expresses that portion of English pursprudence which is unwritten (lex non scripta), in contradistinction to the parliamentary staintes, which are the positive written code (ler scripta). For instance, we say that a particular remedi for a wrong is given by the common law, and that another remedy, by way of penalty, is provided by statute; meaning that the latter depends upon some known act of the legislature; but the forther rests altogether upon immemorial usage or general principles, which cannot be traced back to any such act. There is yet a still more limited sense, in which the expression is used to designate that portion of the English common law, which is strictly the custom of the realin, and local and numerpal in its origin, in contradistinction to the law of nations, and the maritime and commercial law, which are

drawn from the general usages and principles recognised among civilized nations. Correctly speaking, the common law now comprehends the law of nations and the law inerchant. But these are of much later introduction into English jurisprudence, than the other general customs of the realm, of which we have been speaking. They have been borrowed, for the most part, from the general usages of merchants, in the commercial nations, which, upon the revival of commerce and letters, inhabited the shores of the Mediterranean. For instance, the law of foreign bills of exchange, of insurance, and of general average, is of comparatively recent adoption in England, and cannot be traced back far in her annals. 'The law of insurance has almost entirely grown up since the time when lord Mansfield became the chief-justice of England (1756). The name of the common law, which is thus given to this collection of maxims and customs m England, Blackstone (1 Bl. Comm. 67) says, was either given to it in contradistinction to other laws, as the statute law, the civil law, the law merchant, and the like; or, more probably, as a law common to the realm (jus commune, or folk-right), mentioned by king Edward the Elder, after the abolition of the several provincial customs and particular laws by king Alfred and his successors. But though it is called the ler non scripta (or unwritten law), we are not to imagine that it is, at present, merely oral, and transmitted, from age to age, by word of mouth. In the dark ages, indeed, amidst the general ignorance of the times, few laws were reduced to writmg; and still fewer of these maxims and customs were to be found in books or manuscripts. But (as Blackstone has observed, 1 Bl. Comm. (33) with us, at present, the monuments and evidences of our legal customs are contained in the records of the several courts of justice, in books of reports and judicial alecisions, and in the treatises of learned sages of the profession, preserved and handed down to us from times of the laghest antiquity. They are, however, still styled the unwritten law, because they are not set down in a code, as acts of parhament are, in writing, but they derive their authority from long and , numernorial usage, and the universal recogintion of them throughout the realin. The origin of this common law is now lost in remote antiquity. It probably began in the early customs of the aboriginal Britons, and was successively augmented, in different ages, by the admixture of some of the laws and usages of the Romans, the

Picts, the Saxons, the Danes and the Normans, who spread themselves over the country. It was feeble and narrow at . first; but, expanding with the exigencies · of society and with the progress of knowledge and refinement, it has now become a very complex and intricate system, and presents a singular combination of the strict principles of the old feudal law, with the elegant reasoning of public and commercial jurisprudence, which are so much admired for their general equity. Of such a gradual formation and expansion is, doubtless, the law of most civilized countries. The Roman or civil law is made up, not merely of the positive legislation of the senate and the people, and the educts of the emperors, but also of the decrees of courts of justice, of the opinions of learned jurists, and of the silent but irresistible usages of the people in the arrangements of their business and donrestic policy. These usages, at first voluntary and arbitrary, generally acquired the force of custom; and tradition made them operate as laws to regulate like concerns in other ages; and, as they were generally founded in public convenience, they were adhered to inst from habit, and at last from an anxious desire, natural in all governments, to profit by the experance of the past, and to fix rights by some certain rules conceiding with the existing state of the people. The common law is usually divided into 3 kinds.— I, general enstoms, which are the universal rule of the whole kingdom, and form the common law in its more usual signification; 2. particular customs, which, for the most part, affect only the inhabitants of particular districts; 3, cert an particular laws, which, by custom, are adopted and used by some particular courts of pretty general and extensive jurisdiction. (1 Bl. Comm. 67.) The first embraces the general maxines and principles of English jurisprudence, such as the regulation of the descent of estates, the exposition of contracts and wills, the remedies for each impries, and the definition and punishment of crimes, The second embraces the jurisprudence of a peculiar nature existing in certain local districts, such as the custom of gavelkind, in Kent-county, where all the sons inherit the estate of their parent, and not-(as is the general law of England) the eldest son; so the custom of Borough English, where the youngest son inherits the estate: such, also, are the peculiar customs of the city of London. The third embraces those portions of the civil law and the canon law which are of force in the

ecclesiastical and admiralty and other courts, and have long constituted the system which regulates the rights and remedies administered in those courts. This subject will be found discussed at large in 1 Bl. Comm. from p. 63 to p. 92, and in lord Hale's History of the Common Law. A further discussion here would occur too much space.-The common law of England constitutes the general basis of the jurisprudence of all the U. States of America, except only Louisiana, where the civil law prevails. This common law consists only of the first and third kinds of custom ary law above mentioned, there being in local or provincial law existing in any particular county or district of any state, as contradistinguished from that which prevails in the state at large. When we say that the common law constitutes the basis of American jurisprudence, we do not mean that the whole common law, as it exists in England, is adopted here. The general doctrine is, that such portions of the common law only as were adapted to the situation of the colonies at their first settlement, and were thencealterwards used and recognised, are now of force in the states. But many portions were never as force at all in America. For instance, the ecclesiastical establishment, and much of the lay growing out of it, was never introduced or recognised here. consider that all the statutes made in England before the emigration of our ancestors, which were in amendment of the law, and up inchoration of it constitute a part of our common law, and, as such, were brought inther by our ancestors, at their emigra-But statutes since enacted have n force et all here, unless they have been sanctioned by the legislature, or have been adopted into our local practice, by genera' usage, as amendments of the law. And, indeed, many of the fundamental principles of the common law have been altered, repealed or modified by positive legislation of the various states, as well while they were colonics as since their in dependence; so that, though the general basis is the same, there are almost infinite shades of difference in the actual jurisprindence of the different states.—There is another sense in which we speak of the common law, in contradistinction to what is called equity jurisprudence. The administration of a distinct system of jurisprudence by distinct tribunals of this na ture seems peculiar to England and the colonies which derive their origin from Blackstone (3 Bl. Comm. 50) has well observed, that the distinction between

law and equity, as administered in different courts, is not at present known, nor seems ever to have been known in any other country at any other time; and yet the difference of one from the other, when administered by the same tribunal, was perfectly familiar to the Romans; the jus pratorium, or discretion of the prator, being distinct from the leges, or standing laws. It would occupy too much space to enter into a full developement of this distinction in the actual administration of justice in England. In general, courts of equity administer remedies ex a quo et bono only in cases where the courts of common taw cannot administer an adequate remedy. Hence a very familiar expression is, that a right is an equitable right, or an equity; by which we mean, that it is a right recogmsed only in courts of equity, and for which the common law, in its ordinary tribunals, affords no remedy, and of which A takes no notice. (See Courts and Equity.)

Common Pleas. (See Courts.) Common Schools. (See Schools.) Commoners. (See Colleges.)

Coussons, The commons of Great Britain, in a general sense, consist of all such men of property in the kingdoni'as have not seats in the house of lords, every one of whom has a voice in parhament, · ther personally, or by his representatives. Commons, in parliament, are the lower house, consisting of knights elected by the commes, and of cruzens and burgesses by the cities and borough towns. In these elections, anciently, all the people had votes, but in the 8th and 10th of king Henry VI, for avoiding fumults, laws were enacted, that none should vote for knightbut such as were freeholders, did reside in the county, and had 40 shillings yearly revenue, equivalent to nearly £20 a year of the present money; the persons elected for counties to be milites notabiles, at least esquires, orgentlemen fit for kinghthood; native Englishmen, at least naturalized; and 21 years of age; no judge, sheriff or ecclesustical person to sit in the house for county, city or borough. The house of commons, in Fortesche's time, who wrote during the reign of Henry VI, consisted of upwards of 300 members: m or Edward Coke's time, their number At the time of the amounted to 493. umon with Scotland, in 1707, there were 513 members for England and Wales, to which 45 representatives for Scotland were added; so that the whole number of members amounted to 558. In consequence of the umon with Ireland, in 1801, 100 members were added for that country :

and the whole house of commons now consists of 658 members. It is well known, that it has been, of late, the comstant endeavor of a party in England to obtain a more equal and fair representa-tion in the house of commons, not founded, as at present, on old privileges (in consequence of which, some rotten boroughs (q. v.) send two members, while Manchester sends none), but on the ratio of population. Pitt wished to pay off the rotten boroughs, and to distribute representation more equally. (For further information, see Parliament.)

· Commons, Doctors'. (See College of Civilians.)

COMMUNION.

(See Lord's Supper.)
The two chief parties; COMMUNITY. into which theoretical politicians of modern times are divided, approach each other m no point more nearly than in their opinion upon the organization of communities. For those who think that the state should: insure an equality of rights to all its member, and those who believe that the common good of the whole is most safely attained by means of an unequal distribution of civil rights and privileges, both agree in this truth, that communities come next in order to private families, in the formation of the great bond by which mankind me united in church and state. They dufer, indeed, in their views upon the formation of communities, and their relation to the general government, as well as to their individual members, as widely as they do in their principles in regard to the state, and the claims of citizens upon it. History shows that, the establishment of communities has been one of the greatest advances in human improvement; and they have proved, in different ages, the cradle and the support of freedom. By the formation of communities, the patriarchal or Jumly government was broken, which arose from the natural connexion of farmhes, but had terminated in most unnatural restraints and inequalities. In the family, individual interest predominated; and even when increasing numbers gave rise to tribes, the same motives still prevailed. ( The head of the tribe, the patriarch, was elevated to unrestrained authority. after years, all employments were distributed among the branches of the family by mberitance: then arose fixed castesgrave of all human improvement; for their influence palsies individual effort; every man is shut up in one fixed circle, be his talents and accomplishments what they may. That the branch of the tribe which was originally predominant, viz., the caste

of priests, or the priesthood, should, in the given to the old system took place all end, give way, and become inferior in influence to the second order (the military caste or rank), is so natural a consequence, that it has occurred in almost every instance of society constituted in the way which we have described, and is shown, with great probability, to have occurred, not only in Egypt and among the Hhidoos, but in all the islands of the Indian ocean, in Japan, in the early ages of Greece and Rome, and among all people of Gache origin. Some writers, such as Eichhorn, for example, have thought, and a with much reason, that they found traces of an original and hereditary superiority of the priesthood, in the relations of the ancient German priests to the imitary and other orders of society. This constitution of society, derived from family ties, with the institutions belonging to it,-a patriarchal government, a hereditary priesthood, and a fixed arrangement of castes,-existed among the earliest nations, and was probably the first form of government which went into operation upon the earth. With at was usually connected a common right of the whole tribe to the ground which they occupied. This was trinsferred to the head of the tribe, first as the common representative of the members, and for the purposes of fair distribution, but smally became the adividual property of the This is found to have been the case not only in Egypt and among the Hindoos, but also in the islands of the Indian ocean, and among the Scotch Highlanders, among whom, more especially, the old Gaehe constitution of tribes and family races has been preserved in their clans, even till a very late period It will be easily perceived, that such a state of society must have been very oppressive to men of energetic, ambitions spirits, and, therefore, that emigrations would frequently occur? and, as bold adventurers from all castes would join the leaders of these expeditions, it is evident that the original divisions of the castes could as little be kept up among themselves as they could be forced upon the foreign nations among whom the wanderers, by reason of their higher civilization or superior force, might obmin an influence. In the dome-ne history of Greece and Rome, we can discover a long-continued contest between the old family constitution of government, which gave particular races particular claims to sovereignty, and the rights of the community in general, which terminated, after many hard-fought battles, with the entire overthrow of the former. The first shock

contemporaneously, in Athens and Rome, by the substitution of divisions founded. on property, in the room of the old divis-' ions according to tribes and families. The removal from landed property of all restrictions in falor of families, and the equal inheritance of women, were among the most important consequences of this change in Rome.—Among the Germans, the system of communities, which was, from the beginning, the foundation of their political constitution, has remained estentially the same to the present time. The common people (Gefolge), who had voluntarily joined a certain leader, ac-knowledged him as their commander in war, but not as their sovereign in time of peace; as the defender of the laws, but not as their superior. All affairs of general interest, even to the determination upon a new campaign, were decided by the people themselves; and this custom was retained in all the states which they estabhshed, in which all the free members enjoyed equal rights. A hereditary disunction of ranks, in the caffier periods of these institutions, is neither certain nor probable. It is only possible, at the most, that some tribes, who had aheady possessed institutions recognising these distinctions, may have transferred them to their new deats. The inhitary associations were agam subdivided into smaller portions, which were perhaps divided in the comnon indicate form, as the divisions into tens and hundreds were the only ones strictly observed; and, as new possessions were acquired, the new geographical and political divisions naturally took the form and title of titlings, hundreds and counties. The free inhabitants of these societies were so far connected, that they were re-ponsible one for the other. They had courts, and chose their own judges. This form of society continued nowhere so long as in England, although it is not entirely given up in any of the states of Germanic origin. The freemen of the county formed in England a particular commumey, whose head-the oldest caldorman, comes, count or governor-was appointed by the king, but the second in command, the receiver of the royal taxes (shire-gerefa, grave, graf, sheriff, equivalent to the German Schultheis, exactor), was for some time elected by the people. The royal boroughs, which were scattered through the countries, were occupied by burgesses, who formed communities distinct from the tithings, consisted of freemen (nobles), and, like the counties, were represented at

the assemblies convoked by the king. The lands which did not belong to the king, or were not given to his followers, seem originally to have been the property of the county, a part or lot in which belonged only to those capable of doing military duty, and constituted the common property; the folk-land, allodial, or recveland of the Anglo-Savons; the salland of the Franks; while the lords' property, or thane-land, or book-land of the Anglo-Saxons, was conferred only upon the followers of the king, or of the great territoral lords, upon condition of the perform-ance of personal service. This last union of the king and the great lords with their vassals threatened the overthrow of the freedom of the communities, as all who were not thus dependent on the great were left without protection from violence; but, after the 10th century, the commons rose again, in consequence of the influence of several causes, partly from the wealth accumulated by the practice of arts and trades, partly from the growth of towns around the castles of the knights. In these towns, which had obtained their freedom, arusans of various sorts were collected, who were distinguished for spat and It frequently happened, that, boldnes«. in the course of time, the knights—the original protectors of these communities were expelled. In some cases, however, they became unugled in the mass of citazens. Many traces of this state of society are sull to be found, especially in England, exhibited in the vacious constitutions of the cities and towns, and in the representation of boroughs in parhament. Only those towns which were in existence at the establishment of these Germanic mstitutions, or which remained as relics of the Roman and British times, owe then representation in parlicitent to their importance as towns. All other places hold their privileges as royal boroughs, which weres originally the sole possessors of the corporate rights of towns. The privilege of voting in cities is chiefly confined to the descendants of the old free families, or depends upon certain burgage tenures, • and is thus in the possession of a certain number of independent voters; while, in the boroughs, the freedom of the borough is sometimes the common property of all the inhabitants of the place, and sometimes depends on certain burgage tenures. As these boroughs were created for the defence of the country, and the protection of the royal interests, we may see on this the reason why they are so much more numerous in the figurer counts,

and especially in Cornwall, than in other parts. The formation and constitution of municipal communities, in other European states, has taken a nearly similar course, although the description of this course, as given by Eichhorn, is not of universal application. The Burguardeien, which are found to have existed in Meissen and Brandenburg in the 10th century, are nearly related to the English boroughs, in like manner as the older towns and cities, which have remained as specimens of the Roman times and institutions, have served as models for towns of modern origin, and for the establishment of their city-privileges (libertus Romana). These municipal. communities seem to have taken an important part in the representation of the country; in the establishment of which, the old notions respecting the character and rights of a community seem to have had as great or a greater share than the modern and most unjust notion of a representation of the landed interest. England is the only country in which the boroughs and the free possessors of landed estates have continued to form one body or chamber of representation—the commoris-to which they have always belonged; while, roother countries, the gentlemen or knightnood have united themselves to the nobility, and thus become separated in their interests from the towns. But, in almost all parts of the European continent, the representatives of the towns appear to, have lost much of their influence, to which various causes seem to have contributed. The most important among them has been the internal corruptions of the institutions of the towns themselves. The constitution of the German towns has generally suffered an injurious change, by the estabh-hment of a chief magistrate for life, who has the power of appointing his inferiors in office, who are naturally selected from among his own friends and dependents. Though, in the large towns, the high and independent character of the burgeses, and their republican institutions, have been strong obstacles to these abuses, or the occasion of their being quickly corrected (as has been the case in all the imperial cities, and in the large towns of other countries); on the other hand, there has grown up, in the small towns, a contracted policy and cast of feeling, in accordance with the diminutiveness of their influence and importance, which has nade them proverbial, in Germany, for narrowness of spirit. In this manner, all true public spirit has been lost. The mismanagement and corruption of the governments

VOL. 111.

of the towns have destroyed their prosperity, and, with it, the old citizen spirit; and few towns are to be found in Germany, where just complaints are not heard of , the corruption of old institutions, and the waste of the property of the place. These defects in the government of the towns, and the frequent, contests between the Burgesses and their magistrates, attracted the attention of government still more, .from the fact that another branch of the popular authority—the administration of justice—had entirely departed from its original character. This portion of their authority had been wrested from the burgesses by the increasing subtleties of the law, and had passed into the hands of functionaries who were seldom able to command public confidence and respect; and the town-officers could, in truth, be no longer regarded as the agents of the municipality, even before they began, both in name and in reality, to assume the character and duties of state and policeofficers. This occurred first in France. where the royal treasury was, for a short time, supplied by the sale of these offices. This example was followed by other states, especially in Germany, after the time of Frederic II of Prussia, where it was first seen, that, upon every reform of the towns and their institutions, something valuable was taken from them, and sacrificed to the cause of absolute authority. In Prussia, an approach to a freer government of municipalities took place by the ordinance of Nov. 10, 1808, which has served as a model for several other German states, but, if carefully examined, will appear valuable only as demonstrating how necessary some approach to popular institutions is, even in an absolute monarchy. It is the work of the Prussian minister Stem. (q. v.) In republics, the organization of the municipalities, the establishment and due regulation of popular rights and privileges, is "of the greatest importance. (See the articles City and Town.)

Convent; an extinct family of sovereigns, according to an unsupported tradition, of Italian origin, which numbered, on the throne of Constantinople (from 1057 to 1204) and on that of Trebisond (from 1204 to 1461). Is emperors, besides 19 kings, and minerous independent princes. (See Byzantine Empire, and Trebisond). When the crusiders had overturned the throne of the Connem in Constantinople, and established the Latin empire there, in 1204, a prince of the ancient house of the Connemi founded an independent state at Trebisond, in Asia Minor, where

he was governor. The last sovereign of . this house was David Commenus. From him, it is said, was descended Demetrius Commenus, a French captain of dragoons, who died without children, at Paris, in 1821. with the title of maréchal de camp., But his descent cannot be historically traced. Ducange, an accurate, faithful and learned historian, asserts, without hesitation, that Mohammed 11, the conqueror of Constantinople, after he had obtained the empire of Trebisond, so called (which was scarcely as large as a French department), from the emperor David, by a treaty, sent for this prince and his seven children to Constantinople. In order to get possession of the meome which had been secured to the Greek prince, 'he ordered him to be put to death, with all his children, at Adminople, in 1462, under pretence of a conspiracy. This is confirmed, according to Ducange, by albeontemporary writers-Chalcondylas, Ducas, Phranzes. historian maintains that one of his children was carned off unhurt to Laconia (Mama), where the family maintained a war with the Turks, generation after gencration, for 200 years. Betrayed, but not conquered, Constantine Commenus enigrated at last from Manua, landed, in 1676, at Genoa, accompanied by several Greeks, and planted a colony in the isle of Corsica. His posterity governed this district, inheritmg the dignity and title of capitano; but, when Corsica was poined to France, they lost their possessions. This account, however, is not credible; for no mention whatever is made in contemporary history, either of a child of David Comnenus, or of his posteray, after 1462. Demetrins Conneiris, indeed, who pretended to be the last branch of the family of Corsican colonists (born in Corsica, in 1750), was recognised by the French government as a descendant of David Commenus, by a royal decree of 1782, registered duly by the parliament; but this recognition was effected by M. de-Vergennes, merely from political motives. The fall of Constantmople was then supposed to be at hand, and it was for the interest of France to secure the claim of legitimate inheritance to a descendant of . that family in France. If the sceptre of the grand seignior had then been broken, France would have supported the claims of the French officer; for, in the diploma of Louis XVI, he was recognised as the lawful successor of the emperors of Trebisond. Captain Demetrus Commenus emigrated in the beginning of the revolution, fought under the banners of the prince of Condé, returned, in 1802, to France, and

## COMNENI—COMPARATIVE ANATOMY.

lived, till 1814, on a pension of 4000 francs, which Napoleon had assigned him. Louis XVIII confirmed this stipend, and made him maréchal de camp, and knight of St. Louis. He died Sept. 8, 1821, and left a manuscript work, in which he labored to show that the Greeks had risen from a state of barbarism even before the time of Homer. A remarkable member of the family was the princess Anna Comnena, daughter of the emperor Alexius I, who tween the northern extremity of Madagasflourished in the first half of the 12th century. In the history of her father, whom she praises with all the affection shows by madame de Stael towards her parent, 'she gives a lively description of the manners of her age, and the state of the court of Constantinople. (See Gibbon's Roman Empire, c. 48.)

Como, Lake (lago di Como; anciently, lacus Larius); a lake in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, at the foot of the Alps. Towards the middle, it is divided into two branches, by the point called Bellaggio. The branch extending towards the S. W., to the city of Come, goes under the same name; that Which turns to the S. E., to Lecco, takes the name of lake Lecco. The length of the lake to Bellaggio is five leagues; that of the S. W. branch, six leagues; and that of the S. E. branch, four leagues. The greatest width is one league. More than 60 rivers and rivulets empty into it, and the Adda passes through it. It is about 700 feet above the level of the sea, and 191 feet above the territory of Lake Como, the most delightful of all the lakes at the foot of the Alps, is surrounded by mountains 8 or 9000 feet high, which descend towards the lake, and terminate in fulls, resembling terraces. It is bordered by delightful gardens and country seats. Many deheious fish, par-ticularly trouts, are taken in the lake. The neighboring country is rich in minerals, iron, copper and lead.

Como (anciently Comum); capital of the province of Como, in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, 9 leagues N. N. W. of Milan, in a delightful valley on lake Como (q. v.); lat. 45° 48′ 20″ N.; lon. 9° 5′ 12″ E. It is a bishop's see. The number of the inhabitants is about 7500, many of whom travel about with little manufactures, such as mirrors, spectacles, little pictures. Even in the time of the Roman emperors, this taste for emigration manifested itself. The inhabitants of Como were then to be found in all parts of Italy, in the capacity of masons. This city contains some anticulties, and 12 beautiful churches; also a cabinet of natural history and natural philosophy. The 11th and 12th centuries were the flourishing period. of Como. It was then at the head of the Ghibeline party, and the rival of Milan. The province of Como, which constituted the department of Lario in the kingdom of Italy, includes 315,634 inhabitants, in 530 communities.

Comoro, or Commorro, or Gomara ISLANDS; islands in the Indian ocean, becar and the continent of Africa. They are four in number-Angarcia (called also Comoro), Mohillu, Johanna and Mayotta. The inhabitants are uncivilized, but harmless. Europeans have never formed settlements there. These islands are extremely fertile, well stocked with cattle, sheep, hogs, and birds of various kinds. They produce, likewise, sweet and sour oranges, citrons, bananas, honey, sugarcanes, rice, gmger, cocoa-nuts, &c. They are situated between lat. 11° 20' and 13° 5/ S., and ion. 42° 10' and 45° 30' E. The population, consisting of Negroes and Arabs, is estimated at 20,000.

Company, in inhitary language; a small body of foot or artillery, the number of which varies, but, in the English army, is generally from 50 to 120, commanded by a captain, a lieutenant and an ensign, and, sometimes, by a first and second lieutenant, as in the artillery and flank compames of the line. In the Austrian and Prussian armies, companies are stronger. In France, the strength of a company has varied very much. In former times, a company consisted of from 25, 30, 40, up to 200 men; in 1793, of 80 men; in 1808, they had 137 men; in 1814, 72 men; in 1823, 80 men. In 1820, a French battalion was composed of 8 companies, and a regiment of 3 battalions.

Companies for carrying on the Fur-TRADE. (See Fur-Trade.)

COMPANIES, JOINT STOCK. (See Joint

Stock Companies.) . Comparative Anatoms is the science which investigates the anatomy of all animals with the view to compare them, to explain one by means of the others, and to classify the various kinds, according to their anatomical structure. As comparison, and the formation and extension of genera and species, are the delight of the naturalist, comparative anatomy is one of the most interesting sciences. The want of an organ in certain classes of animals, or its existence under different modifications of form, structure, &c., cannot fail to suggest interesting conclusions concerning the office of the same part in the

omy is of the highest importance to physiology. Haller observes, very justly, \*Physiology has been more illustrated by comparative anatomy than by the dissect. tion of the human body." Without comparative anatomy, the natural history of animals would always have remained in a . . backward state, more so even than mineralogy without the aid of chemistry. And it is to comparative anatomy that wer . owe, in a great measure, that more liberal view of mature, which belongs to modern cluded, as one unbroken whole. Cuvier's Lecons d'Anatomie comparie (m 5 large 8vo. volumes) is an excellent work. Blumenbach's works on comparative anatomy, also, are highly valuable. His Handbuch der vergleichenden Anatomie und Physiologie (Göttingen, 1804), has been translated by Mr. Lawrence, under the title of a Short System of Comparative Anatomy (London, 1807-1808, 8vo.). Gall has rendered great service to science by investigations in comparative anatomy, though he 

cients, whose only guides on the trackless waters were the heavenly bodies, so often covered by clouds, could not venture far from shore. It is the compass which has enabled men to steer boldly across the deep. The inventor of this great instrument shares the fate of the authors of many of the noblest inventions. He cannot be precisely ascertained. Some call inm Flavio Grega: others. Giri, a native of Amalfi, in Naples, at the beginning of the 14th century: but there are proofs, that the use of the magnetic needle, in pointing out the north, was known at an earlier period in Europe, and that a contrivance similar to a compass went under the name of marinette in France, as early as the 12th century. The English first suspensed the compass, so as to enable it to retain always a horizontal position, and the Dutch gave names to the divisions of the card. The earliest missionaries to China found the magnetic needle in use in that countly. —The compass is composed essentially of a magnetic needle, suspended freely on a pivot, and containing a card, marked with the 32 points of direction into which the horizon is divided, and which are thence called points of the compass. The needle always points to the north (excepting slight variations), and the direction which the ship is steering is therefore determined by a mere inspection of the cord This

human subject. Thus comparative anat- apparatus is enclosed in a brass box, with a glass covering, to allow the card to be seen without being disturbed by the wind, This again is freely suspended within a larger box, so as to prevent, as much as possible, the needle from being affected by the motion of the vessel. The whole is then placed in the biamacle, in sight of the man at the helm. On the inside of that part of the compass-box which is directly on a line with the vessel's bow, is a clear black stroke, called the lubber-line, which the steersman uses to keep his required course; times, and considers all nature, man in-4 that is, he must always keep the point of the card, which indicates his course, comending with the lubber-line. The compass here described is called the steering com-Several other sorts are used for different purposes, but the principle on which they are constructed is the same. Some land compasses are of the size of a watch-sed, and actually fixed in such scals; others of the size and external form of a pocket watch. Sometimes a little sun dial is affixed to compass-boxes. The box, of whatever material it is made, must have no particle of non maits construc-

Compasses, or Pair of Compasses; a mathematical instrument, used for the describing of encles, measuring bues, &c. The common compasses consist of two branches or less of non, brass, or other metal, pointer - 1 bottom, and joined by a rivet, whereon they move as on a centre We have compasses of various kinds, and contrivances accommodated to the various uses for which they are intended.

Courries 1, a French town, in the department de l'Oise, 154 leagues N. N. E. of Paris. It has 6260 mhabitants, erook ed streets and ill-built houses, and some manufactures and commerce. Formerly, it was supported only by the court, which occasionally resided here. It has two far, one in April, and one in November Charles VI took this town from the duke of Burgundy in 1415. In 1430, Joan of Are was taken prisoner here by the English.

COMPLUTENSIAN POLYGLOT. cala de Henares.)

Composite Order. (See Architecture.) Compost, in husbandry and gardening; \* several sorts of soils, or kinds of earthy matter mixed together; or a mixture of earth and putrid animal substance, or vegetable substance; in fact, any artificia! manure to assist the soil in the work of vegetation. (See Colonies, pauper.)

COMPOSTELLA, OF SAN JAGO DE COMPO-STELLA (anciently Brigantium); a city of Sporn, and capital of Galicia; 98 miles

W. of Astorga; lon. 8° 30' W.; lat. 42° 52' N.; population, about 12,000. It is situated in a brautiful plain, on all sides surrounded with agreeable hills, between the Sar and Sarella, which unite about half a league below. It is the see of an archbishop. In the metropolitan church are preserved, as the people believe, the remains of St. James, the patron of Spain, to whom the church is dedicated, and from whom the town is named. are 12 parish churches, 14 religious houses, and 4 hospitals. The annual revenue of the archbishop is said to amount to 60,000 ducats. A university was established here in the year 1532, consisting of 4 colleges. The order of St. Jago takes its title from this city, the knights of which possess 87 commanderies, with an annual income of 200,000 duents.

Compostella, Nuova; a town of Mexico, in Guadalaxara, built by Nuñez de Guzman, once the sec of a bishop, removed to Guadalaxara; 300 miles W. N. W. Mexico; lon. 106° 11′ W.; lat. 21° 20′ N. There are silver mimes in the neighbor-

hood.

Compound Blowpipf; an instrument producing an intense heat from the combustion of oxygen and hydrogen gases. The gases are contained each in a separate gas-holder, and are expelled by the pressure of a column of water, not being allowed to mix until they arrive nearly at the aperture of a pipe tipped with platina, when they are inflamed. The heat produced is sufficient to melt all the earths. and the natural as well as artificial compounds which they form with each other. The metals, also, are brought by it into a state of ebulhtion, and are even completely volatilized.—This modification of the oxyhydrogen blowpipe, as it has sometimes been called, which was invented by doctor Hare, of Philadelphia, is far preferable to that of Newman, or rather of Brooke, who appears to have been the first inventor, since it is not attended by any danger, whereas the original instrument, in which the gases were previously mangled, was hable to a violent and hazardous explosion. The compound blowpipe has been found of occasional use in the arts, where an intense and long-continued heat is required.

Compressibility; the quality of bodies of being reducible, by sufficient power, to a narrower space, in consequence of their porosity, without diminishing their quantity of matter. All bodies are probably compressible, though the liquids, in particular offer an almost invincible resist-

ance to compression. These bodies which occupy their former space when the pressure is removed are called *elastic*.

Compression Machines; instruments for compressing or condensing elastic flu-Such, for instance, is an air-pump with cocks, by which the air can be condensed in tight vessels. For the compression of liquids (for instance, water), Abich has constructed a metallic cylinder of 21 inches 5 12 lines high, and 31 inches 71 lines in diameter, 1 inch 21 lines thick. This cylinder is filled with water, and an iron piston, covered with leather, and exactly fitting the bore, is pressed into it. For this pressure, a screw was first used; but, in order to produce a better application of the power, a lever was afterwards; employed to force down the piston. A mark on the piston shows, by its distance from a little ledge across the cylinder, how far the piston has been forced down, and, when the force subsides, how far it has been driven up. (See Zimmerman on the Elasticity of Water, Leipsic, 1779.) The latest experiments on the compressibility of water, we owe to Oersted (Annales de Chimie et de Physique) and Mr. Perkins, so distinguished for his mechanical inventions.

Coxes (from the Greek); the name of a merry company of young people, who came singing into the houses of their friends and mistresses, to entertain them with their music. Comus was also the name of the songs sung at festive entertainments. This name is not given, by early ancient writers, whose works have been preserved, to a divinity presiding over such meetings, who is a creation of later times, which gave him the name of the festive songs in which were celebrated the praises of the giver of social joys. He is first mentioned by

Philostratus. Concave (See Concex.)

CONCAVE LENS; an epithet for glasses ground hollow on the inside, so as to reflect on the hollow side.

CONCENTRATION (in Chemistry;) the act of increasing the strength of fluids, by volatilizing part of their water.

Concentrate; an epithet for figures having one common centre.

Conception, Immaculate. The belief is entertained in the Roman Catholic church, that the virgin Mary was born without the stain of original sin. St. Bernard, in the 12th century, rejected this doctrine, in opposition to the canons of Lyons, and it afterwards became a subject of vehement controversy between

34 \*

Sixtus IV, himself a Franciscan, allowed toleration on this point. In the 5th session of the council of Trent, it was resolved, that the doctrine of the conception of all men in original sin was not intended to include the Virgin. The controversy was revived in the university of Paris towards the close of the 16th century. During the times of Paul V and Gregory XV, such was the dissension in Spain, that both Philip and his successor sent special embassies to Rome, in the vain hope that this contest might be terminated by a bull. The dispute continued to run so high m Spain, that, in the military orders of St. James, of the Sword, of Calatrava, and of Alcantara, the knights, on their admission, \* ment, or it is called, in general, concerto dvowed to maintain the doctrme. In 1708, Clement XI appointed a festival to be celebrated throughout the church in honor of the immaculate conception. Since that time, it has been received in the Roman church as an opinion, but not as an article of faith. This behef is held by the Greek church also, which celebrates the feast under the title of the conception of St. Anne Petrus de Alva et Astorga published more than 40 volumes on this subject. He died in 1667.

Conception, La, or Pinco: a city and scaport of Chile, on the coast of the South Pacific occan, capital of a jurisdiction, formerly the capital of Chile; Ion 73° 5' W.; lat. 20° 49' 10" S.; population, 13,000. The bay of Conception is one of the most, commodious harbors found in any part of the world. The city is of great extent, because the houses are built only one story high, that they may be the better able to resist the carthquakes that happen every year. It is the residence of the bishop, and of the major-general, who is at the head of the military department. Conception was founded by Peter Valdayia, in 1550. In 1823, the Indians devastated a part of it.—There is not in the universe a soil more fertile than that of this part of Chile. Gram yields 60 for 1; the ymeyalds are equally productive, and the plants are covered with manumerable dlocks, which multiply astomslungly, though abandoned curirely to themselves. All the mhabitants have to do is to set up fences round their respective possessions, and to leave the oxen, horses, mules and sheep in the enclosures. The common price of a fat ox is \$8; that of a sheep, ? of a dollar; but there are few purchasers, and the natives are accustomed, every year, to kill a some of those divisions which are in use

the Scotists and the Thomists. The Dogreat number of oxen, of which the hides minicans espoused the opinion of St. and tallow are alone preserved, and sent Thomas, the Franciscans that of Scotus. to Linus. There is no particular disease and tailow are alone preserved, and sent to Lima. 'There is no particular disease incident to this country. There are at Conception several persons who have completed a century.

Concert; a musical performance, in which any number of practical musicians, either vocal or instrumental, or both, unite in the exercise of their respective talents The concerts of the ancient Greeks were executed only in the unison or octave.

Concerno; a kind of musical composition, which is an imitation of the solo song with accompaniments-in short, an inntation of the aria. In the concerto, one chief instrument is distinguished, and leads, the rest. In the case of such concertos, the performance is called after this instrucamera. The term double concerto is used if there are two chief instruments.

Concerto grosso is an expression applied to the great or grand chorus of the concert, or to those places of the concert m which the ripicnos and overy auxiliary instrument are brought into action, for the sake of contrast and to increase the effect

Concerls spirituale was a concert at Paris, performed in the religious seasons, when the theatres were closed. The pieces performed, however, were not always of a spiritual kind. It was introduced in 1725, by Anne Damcan, called Plċlidor.

Concert; spacking but strained sentendes, far-fetched plays on words, &c., which have become famous, in particular since the use of them by the Italian poet Maino. The taste to, them is a diseaswhich has munifested itself in the developenient of almost all literatures. Spannards and English suffered dion at for a long time. Marino, who introduced them into Italy, caught this poetical infection in France, where a poet called the wind the couract of . Eolus, the sun. the prince of topers. Germany has had its Lobenstein; and, even now, there are, in every country, writers afflicted with this passion for a false bulliancy.

Conchology Aderived from Asygn, a . shell-fish with two shells, and Myor, word), more correctly, Concurrance (derived from Agyxi\u00e4m, all sorts of shell-fish, and Mayos), is that branch of natural history which describes those animals which produce shells, and teaches the art of arranging the shells themselves. The beginnings of this science are to be found in the writings of Aristotle, who established

among modern authors. He divided shells suggested one year before, namely, that into monothyra and dithyra; that is, univalves and bivalves. The monothyra were turbinated or not turbinated; they were terrestrial or aquatic; both were marine or fluviatile, fixed or free. To the facts recorded by Aristotle, other ancient authors have added little; to his distribution, nothing. The first modern author who attempted a systematic arrangement of shells, seems to have been Duniel Major, who, in 1675, published Synoptical Tables, containing a few Genera, naturally arranged, and established upon the Species described by Fabricius Columna. He divided shells into univalves and multivalves, placing the bivalves among the latter. In 1681, Grew, in his Museum Regium, added a division analogous to our bivalves, and indicated most of the subdivisions that have since obtained. About 1687, the celebrated Lister published his Historia sive Synopsis Methodica Conchyliorum, Libri quatuor. This work contains a great number of accurate figures of shells, pays great attention to the lange of bivalves, and considers them as equivalve or not. Tournefort, who died in 1708, seems to have first suggested, in bivalves, the distinction of close or gaping (clause rel hiantes). In 1711, Rumph added to the conchyhological catalogue many-shells from the Indian seas, and indicated some good generic divisions. In 1730, Breyn pointed out a character in univalves, until then not noticed; namely, that some of them possess more than one compartment or chamber. This character divides the umyalyes into monothalamia and polythala-After 1730, no improvements of much value were made in the science, until 1757, in which year the publication of Adanson's Voyage to Senegal took place, and probably suggested many considerations, that became fixed principles of conchyliology by the adoption of Linmens. In studying the univalves (limacons), Adanson considered the spire, the apex, the aperture, the operculum, the nacre, the penosteum; in the bivalves (conques), the valves, whether equal or unequal, whether shutting close or gaping: the beaks (sommets), whether prominent or not, and according to their relative position with respect to the middle of the valve; the image, according to the number of the teeth and cavities; the ligament, according to its shape and situation; the muscles, according to their figure, size and number. In forming his conchyliological arrangement, Adanson adopted an important principle, which Guettard had

the consideration of the animal is as necessary as that of the shell, in order to form a natural system of conchyliology. He described and figured the different species of shell-fish that he found in Senegal, and thereby formed a store from which the most valuable materials have been drawn by later authors to enrich the . science. Contemporary, with Adanson was the celebrated Linnaus, whose genius has exercised such great influence over the arrangements of the vegetable and animal kingdoms. The ninth edition of the Systema Natura of Linnaus was published in 1746, 11 years before the appearance of Adanson's work, forming only an octavo volume of 236 pages, in which Linnatus does not appear to have used the '. term mollusca, the animals now thus designated being distributed by him, the naked species in the order zoophyta, in the class vermes, and the species bearing shells in the order testarca of the same class. The 10th edition, which appeared in 1758, one year after the publication of the Voyage to Schegal, was much enlarged; and in the 19th edition, which may be supposed to have received the last touches of us illustrious author, the part relating to the annual kingdom had swelled to 1327 ' pages. This edition was published about 10 years after Adanson's work, the perusal of which had probably somewhat modified the views of Lannæus. Linnæus divides his sixth class of animals into five orders, in the second of which are 'eight genera of true mollusca, viz., ascidia, limax, aplysia, doris, tethys, sepia, clio and scyllea. The third order is almost entirely devoted to testacea,\* divided into, 1. multivalves, the shell having more than two pieces; 2. biralves, having two pieces; 3. uniralves, having one piece. The first divis-Jon contains three genera, chitan, lepas and pholas. The second contains 14 genera mya, solen, tellina, cardium, mactra, donax. venus, spondylus, chama, arca, ostrea, anomia, mytilus and pinna. The third division, separated into two sections, accordingons the spire is regular or not, contams 19 genera—argonauta, nautilus, comus, cypræa, bulla, roluta, buccinum, strombus, murex, trochus, turbo, helix, nerita, haliotis, patella, dentalium, serpula, teredo and sabella. In giving the characters of his genera, with respect to the animals, Linneus is always satisfied with citing the name of a naked molluscum described in

<sup>\*</sup> As Lunneus has said so little about the animals, if we translate testinen by the term shells, perhaps the error will be scarcely appreciable

the preceding order, which he supposes Linnaus, except that the genera are someto be analogous to the animal of the genus under consideration; therefore it is probable that the influence exerted by Adanson's work over the latter editions of the Systema Natura extended only to increasing the number of genera, and causing them to be more rigorously marked out and described. Some of the approximations of the Linnæan system are unnatural and inconvenient, and some genera, nearly related, are too far separated in the arrangement; but its nomenclature, and the clearness and precision of its technical terms, gave it a predominance that it has maintained almost to the present day. A detailed explanation of the conchyhological system of Lumeus may be found in a dissertation by I. Murray, published in the eighth volume of the Academeal Amenities. The Neues systematisches Conchylien Kabinet-a great work, commenced by Martini in 1769, continued by Chemnitz, and finished by Schröter in 1793—may be considered rather as a magnificent collection of figures of shells, well drawn and colored, than as a system of conchyliology. As its figures are constantly referred to by the modern authors, it will be found very useful to students in identifying species and arranging their cabinets. The whole work consists of 12 volumes 4to. In 1776, Da Costa published his Elements of Conchology, in which more attention was paid by him to the characters of the aperture in univalves, and to the hurge in bivalves, than had been done by his predecessors; and the science is indebted to him for some valuable hints on the indehency of some of the terms employed by Linnieus to designate particular parts of bivalve shells. In 1766, Pallas had published his Miscellance Zoologica, the principles of which, perhaps, entitle him to be considered as the founder of that new school winch the French conchyliologists have since so successfully supported. He indicated the impropriety of separating the testacea from the naked mollusca, in the arrangement of Linneus, and showed that a natural method could only arise from the consideration, not of the shells, but of the generic differences of the aromals inhabiting them. Notwithstanding the light struck out by Pallas, Bruguiere, one of the modern authors to whom the science is most indebted, in 1792, estill followed so closely the Linnan arrangement as to admit the division of the molluscous worms and test taceous worms into two orders. His order testacearis nearly the same as that of

what more numerous and better defined. This order contains three divisions, according to the number of the valves. divides the genus lepus of Linnaus into balanus and anatifa, ldropping the term lepas altogether, in which he has been followed by Lamarck. This is so unusual, and, indeed, so ungracious a proceeding, that we would recommend to American conchyliologists always to use the term lepas instead of analifa. Besides the two genera above-mentioned, he places among the multivalves, chilon, teredo, fistulana, pholas, anomia and crania. Among the bivalves, his new genera are, placima, perna, trigonia, unio, tridacna, cardita and terebratula. Among his univalves are the following new genera: fissurclla, siliquaria, aspergillum, ovula, oliva, purpura, cassis, terebra, fusus, cerithium, bulimus, planorbis, natica, camerina, ammonites and orthocera. In 1791 appeared the first volume of Testacea utriusque Sicilia, corumque Historia et Anatome—a splendid work, by Poli, an Italian physician, who first attempted to establish the genera of mollusca from the consideration of the animal only; without reference to the shell. This work may be considered as forming a remarkable epoch in the science, because, since as appearance, the classification of the mollusca and of the bivalves has become much more, conformable to nature. The subjects figured in the superbiplates of this work had been previously modelled in way by the scholars of the author. In 1798, G. Covier proposed a new classification of molluscous animals. (Tableau elementaire de l'Historie naturelle des Animent.) In this, he acknowledged himself indebted to the critical observations of a Pallas, and carried nearer to perfection the inventions of Poh. In this arrangement, also, may be found the improvements successively introduced by Bruginere into the distinction of genera, which Lamarck was then increasing every year, in his course at the fardin du roi. Lumarck did not begin to publish the results of his labors until 1798, when a memoir on the division of the genus sepia into . three genera, sepia, loligo and octopus, appeared in the Journ. d' Hist. Nat., t. 1. Early in 1799, Lamarck published his Prodramus of a new classification of shells, laying down, more precisely, the generic characters, and establishing many new genera, and still continuing the old division into univalves, bivalves und multivalves. Up to this time, Lamarek does not seem to have profited much by the labors of his

predecessors towards the establishment of a natural conchyliological method, but acknowledges that he has adopted the principles and views of Bruguière. Late in 1799, Cuvier published a table of the divisions of the class of mollusca, at the end of the first volume of his Lessons of Comparative Anatomy. We see, in this, that Cuvier had derived light from the Prodromus of Lamarck. Indeed, these two great naturalists, by their successive works, seem to have afforded light alternately to each other for a number of years. In 1801, Lamarck published his Animaux sans Vertebres, in which, not confining lumself entirely to the shells, he has, like Cuvier, paid attention also to the animals. From this period until 1822, when he finished publishing the second edition of Animaur sans Vertebres, under the title of Histoire naturelle des Animaux sans Vertebres, many authors,\* both contmental and English, had published memore and treatises on conchyliology, and many interesting facts had been collected, shedding much additional light on the science. Part of the 5th, and the whole of the 6th and 7th volumes of the Histoire naturelle des Animaux sans Vertebres, are devoted to the conchyliophorous animals, the proper subjects of conchyhology. In this excellent work, Lamarck has improved upon the views of his friend Bruguiere in the following particulars:-not confining himself to the Consideration of the shell; viewing the shell as forming part of an animal; introducing into conchyhology a great number of new generic groups; using a very rigorous and exact terninology; and treating as the foundation of the principal division among bivalves, the number of the nuscular unpressions. He has also abandoned the division of multivalves, bivalves and univalves, which had been followed by most of the preceding conchybologists, and has increased the number of genera to up. wards of 200, the enumeration of which would swell this article beyond a reason-The specific descriptions of able limit. Lamarck, although short, are admirable for their precision, and the skill displayed in them in distinguishing clearly minute specific differences. The study of them will be found, by young naturalists, very beneficial and instructive. In 1812, IL.M. Ducrotay de Blainville read, before the

\* De Ferussac, Draparnaud, Denys de Montfart, de Roissy, Bosc, Perron, Lesueur, De Blanville, Dunderil, Chaunisso, Kuhl, Von Moll, Von Fichtel, Megerle, Oken, Rafinesque, Desmarest, Savigny, Leach, Olfers, Sowerby, Schweiger, Swamson, Ranzam, Say

philomathean society, a memoir, pointing out a necessary relation subsisting between the shell and the respiratory organs, and drawing therefrom a new principle of arrangement, depending on the existence or non-existence of a symmetry or regularity of form in those organs, and the protecting body, the shell. In 1825, De Blainville published his Manuel de Malacologie et de Conchyliologie-a very valuable work, to which we are indebted for most of the historical facts recorded in this article The first chapter of the second section of this work, consisting of 80 pages, treats of shells, or the principles of conchyliology, and recommends itself strongly to students by the fulness accuracy and clearness of its definitions, and the consistency of its general views. In modern times, the study of the mollusca and their coverings has become very important from geological considerations. As particular genera are known to belong to particular strata of the earth's crust, and as the positions assumed by the living animals are known, the ascertained position of the fossils determines, with sufficient certainty, whether the stratum has undergone removal, disruption or subversion since the death of the animals The most interesting considerations are presented to the inquiring mind by some of the gen ra of microscopic shells; and the magnitude of the results produced by their infinite multipheny causes their importance in the economy of nature to be felt with astonishment and admiration. Take, for instance, the miliolites, thus commented on by Lamarck. "The miliolites is a shell of most. singular form, and perhaps one of the most interesting to study, on account of its multiplicity in nature, and the influence which it has upon the condition and size of the masses at the surface of the carth. or which compose its external crust. It is one of those numerous examples which prove, that, in producing living bodies. what nature seems to lose in size, she fully regams in the number of individuals, which she multiplies to infinity, and with a readmess almost muraculous. The bodies of these minute annuals exert more influence on the condition of the masses which compose the surface of the earth, than those of the largest animals, such as elephants, hippopotami, whales, &c., Which, although constituting much larger individual masses, are infinitely lest multiplied in nature. In the environs of Paris, some species of miliohtes are found in so great a quantity, that they form almost the principal part of the stony masses of certain

ranges." The naturalists of the U. States have also contributed much valuable matter to the science in question, and some new genera and many new species have been added by their labors. Among the scientific gentlemen in the U. States who have written on this subject, are Thomas Say, of Philadelphia, the late D. H. Barnes, of New York, thector Hildreth, doctor Jacob Green and Isaac Lea, of Philadelphia. The papers lately contributed by the last-named gentleman to the Journal of the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society on the Nanades of Lamarek, containing descriptions of several new species, are illustrated by plates executed with remarkable beauty and accuracy.

CONCLAVE (a room); the place where the cardinals assemble for the election of the pope; also the electoral assembly of the cardinals themselves. Pope Gregory X, whose election had been delayed for three years, established, in the council at Lyons (1274), the regulations of the conclave. It was settled, that if the pope should die in a city where he had resided with his court, the cardinals present should not be obliged to wait longer than 10 days for their absent brethren. After the lapse of 10 days, all the cardinals present should assemble in the palace in which the pope had died. Here they were all to be shut up in one room (conclase), without partitions or curtains, which, with the exception of one outlet, was to be closed on all sides, so that no one should speak with them, nor be admitted into their presence, except those who were called, with the consent of all the brethren, for the purpose of assisting, in some way, in the election. No one was to be permitted either to send in a messenger, or to write to the cardinals, but a window was to be left open in the room, through which the necessary food could be handed to their. If, in three days after entering the conclave, they had not chosen a pope, they were, on the five following days, to receive but one dish at noon and in the evening; and, after this, nothing but bread, wine and water, till the election should take place. These regulations of Gregory X have-been observed in their essential provisions in recent times, though not always in every particular. As most of the popes have died in Rome, the conclave has asually been held in the Vancan, in the galleries of which, as many cells are built in a row as there are cardinals to be present. There the cardmals rebair. two by two, the day after the funeral of the pope, or on the 10th day after his death, after having heard a mass, which is called *Missa spiritus sancti*, and remain till the election is finished. The conclave which chose pope Plus VII was held at Venice by the assembled cardinals, as Plus VI died far from Rome.

Conclavist; the companion, either lay or clerical, whom the cardinal is allowed to take with him into the conclave (q. v.) during the election of a pope, or to send for if he should fall sick. The conclavists ame, in this case, subject to the same laws as the cardinals; they are not permitted to leave the conclave except in case of severe sickness; they partake at the same table with the cardinals, and have a cell of the same size. The place of conclavist is honorable, and very much sought for. The conclavist of the cardinal who is chosen pope seldom fails to make his fortune. As every cardinal generally becomes a member of the committee of regency, consisting of three cardinals, who are changed daily, each of the conclavists of the cardinals thus engaged has an opportunity to display his talents before the cardinal and his colleagues, as secretary of the committee.

Concord (also called accord, from the Itahan accordare, and this from the Latin chorda); an expression used in music. It denotes an association of sounds, founded on the natural relations of simultaneous tones. Upon this association depends all harmony; in fact, every proper chord is of itself harmony; hence, e.g., the expression harmony of the dominant. In its proper acceptation, harmony is the result of connected tones in consecutive chords. With regard to then simultaneous expression, however, tones differ in their relations. Some, by the mere act of being sounded together, convey to the ear a sense of pleasure. They harmonize in themselves, and are therefore termed consonant chords. or concords. Take, for example, one tone as the fundamental tone; then, to form a concord, all the other tones must harmonize with it and with each other. The idea of a chord has no reference to the number of consonant tones of which it 😼 🖟 formed. The most simple and least perfect concord is made by the combination of two tones, and is formed by connecting the interval of the third with the fundamental tone. The most perfect consonant chord is the harmonic triachord, which is formed by the addition of another third, and constitutes the perfect fifth from the fundamental tone: it is usually termed the dominant. From the character of the

and major sixth, thus,

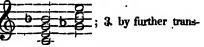
first third, or mediant, these combinations are either major or minor; thus, major C, E, G, or minor C, E flat, and G. minor triachord is to be distinguished from the diminished triachord, which, by . some, is called the false or dissonant, and is formed by two minor thirds, or by the fundamental tone and the minor third and minor fifth; thus, C, E flat, G flat. There is also a redundant triachord, constituted by two major thirds. By the transposition of the tones composing these triachords into higher or lower octaves (changing the positions or inverting the intervals), sall, other consonant chords are formed. It is usual to fix the designation of chords by counting the intervals ascending. arises, I. the chord of the sixth (hexachord), in which the fundamental tone is placed an octave lingher, so that the third becomes a fundamental tone; the fifth is then the third, and the transposed fundamental becomes the sixth; thus, E, G, C, designated by the figure 6. 2. The chord of the fourth and sixth, where the fundamental tone and its third are both placed in a higher octave, so that the fifth becomes the fundamental, the original fundamental is changed to the fourth, and the transposed third becomes the sixth. Hence the name, from the characteristic intervals and the notation, thus  $\frac{\mathbf{6}}{2}$ 

dissonant chords are fit tobtained by adding to the triad another third, which, consequently, stands in the relation of a seventh to the fundamental, and produces a quadrichord. The seventh is the dissonant interval, and, to relieve the ear, requires to be resolved. The chord of the seventh is formed of the fundamental, the third, the fifth and the seventh. The first, and most usual, is constituted by the major triad with the minor seventh; thus C, E, G, B flat. It is called the principal, sometimes the essential chord of the seventh, and is simply designated thus, 7. It rests upon the dominant of that key in which it is to be resolved; for the minor seventh resolves

itself downwards, thus,

while the major dissonant ascends. Hence it may also be called the dominant chord of the seventh, or the chord of the dominant seventh. If we transpose the intervals of these chords, in the same manner as with the triachords, we form, I, the chord of the fifth and sixth (denoted by  $\frac{6}{5}$ ), consisting of the minor third, the minor fifth

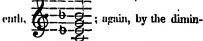
2. the chord of the third and fourth (3), in which the seventh and the fundamental tone of the essential chord of the seventh become the third and fourth,



position, the chord of the second is formed, 'by which the seventh, with the fundamental tone, forms the interval of the



other chords of the seventh, which Godfr. Weber terms by-chords of the seventh, in opposition to principal chords of the seventh, are, the chord of the seventh, formed by the minor truechord and the minor seventh.



shed trachord, with the subsisting minor seventh of the chord of the seventh,

; finally, the chord of the

seventh, with the major triachord and

seventh major, By the trans-

position of these by-chords of the seventh are formed the chords of the fifth and . sixth, the third and fourth, and the chord of the second. We have thus, as appears from this review, nine fundamental chords. viz. two simple accords, three triachords, and four chords of the seventh (the essential chord and the by-chords of the seventh). However complicated the harmony. may be, it is reducible to these chords. There is yet a five-toned chord, the quintchord, which is a union of simultaneous tones, and is formed by the addition of another third (major or minor) to the chord of the seventh, which, consequently, makes the muth from the fundamental tone, and is termed the chord of the ninth. But if, from the adverse concurrence of . the seconds, we omit the fundamental tone, as is usual in close harmony, and transpose the notes as above, we obtain thus

the proper modifications of the quadrichord; for example, the enharmonic chord of C, E flat, G flat. A; C sharp, E, G, B.. These concords, then, are capable of being presented in the most diversified forms in immediate collision, or broken, so that the tones constituting them are heard in succession. Further, the intervals may be confined to one octave, or distributed through distant and different octaves. This forms the ground-work and the distinction between close and dispersed harmony, according to the close or dispersed position of the chords. Further, the application of the intervals composing the chords is governed by the variety of positions, masmuch as the music may be adapted for two, three, four, five voices or parts. In the former, some intervals must be omitted; in the latter, doubled. One of the first systems of chords was offered by Rameau, grounded on the ideas of D'Alembert, and afterwards elucidated in Marpurg's system, which much resembled Vogler's. It has been more recently clucidated by Tark. Another is by Tartini, which is given in Rousseau's Dictionnaire de la Musique. The one deduces and explams the chords from fundamental keys (of the base), the other from melody (the upper tones). Another very simple system of chords as that of Knuberger, which is much followed by Godfr. Weber, in lis treatise on thorough-base. I ron, notice, the idea of harmony is transferred to colors, and we may speak of the harmony of colors, as opposed to the harsh and dazzlung contrast of them, which is avoided by a judicious middle tone of coloring.

CONCORD: a post-town of New Hampshire, and the seat of the state government, in Merrimack county, on both sides of the river Merrimack; 45 miles W. N. W. Portsmouth, 63 N. N. W. Boston, 100 W. S. W. Portland; Ion. 71 29 W.; lat. 43° 12 N.: population, in 1810, 2391; in 1820, 2838. The principal village is pleasantly situated, extending along the western bank of the river nearly two Imiles in length. It contains a state-house, a state-prison, both of stone, a court-house, 3 houses of public worship, and about 200 dwelling-houses. The statehouse, erected in 1817, is a large and very elegant editice, and cost \$60.232. Much of the trade of the upper country centres here; and the importance of the town is increased by the boat navigation, which is opened between this place and Boston by means of the Merrimack uver and Middlesex canal. There are two bridges in Concord across the Merranack-one in the

north part, the other connecting the town with Pembroke.

CONCORD, BATTLE AT. (See Lexing-

ton.)

Concord, Form of (formula concordiæ); one of the most important doctrinal books of the Protestant church, composed at the command of Augustus elector of Saxony, by several distinguished theologions. Augustus had long suspected the existence of secret adherents to the doctrine of Calvin; and, being confirmed in this suspicion by investigation, he thought a book of concord, that is, of union, which should definitively state the form of doctrine to be received, would be the best means for terminating the religious trou-Twelve divines were invited to Lichtenburg, who, in the assembly afterwards convoked at Torgan, examined and settled the principal points, and finished the work in Kloster-Bergen, in 1577; after which followed the solemn signing by the several electors, princes, counts, states of the empire, and the printed publication of the work in 1580. It is said that this affair cost the elector \$53,000. (See Symbolical Books.)

Concord, Goddens of. (See Concor-

Concordance; a book containing the principal words in the Holy Scriptures, in ' alphabetical order, with a designation of the places in which they are to be found. There are concordances of subjects and of words; and, for both kinds, either the Greek or Hebrew text, or a universally received translation, may serve as a basis. Works of this kind are useful for the exegetical theologian, because the comparson of parallel passages is one of the most important auxiliaries of exegesis; and not less so for the preacher, because they enable him to examine, at once, all the pasages of scripture which treat of the same subject. The first work of this kind was published by Hugo Sancto Caro, who used the universally-received Latin translation of the Bible, called the Fulgate. Some of the most approved concordances in English, are those of Cruden, Butterworth, Brown and Taylor. The name . concordance might be given, without impropriety, to similar indices of other works. as the writings of Homer and Shakspeare. In fact, it is so applied in Germany. The uidex of Samuel Ayscough to Shakspeare is a concordance.

CONCORDATE; a convention between the bishop of Rome, as head of the church, and any secular government, for the setting of ecclesiastical relations. Treatics

400

which the pope, as a secular sovereign, concludes with other princes respecting political concerns, are not called concordates. One of the most important of the earlier concordates is that of Worms, called, also, the Calixtine Concordate, made in 1122, between pope Calixius II and the emperor Henry V, in order to put an end to the long contest on the subject of investiture, and which has since been considered a fundamental ordinance in respect to the relations between the Catholic church and the government in Germany. Most of the concordates have been extorted from the popes by the different nations or governments. This was done as early as the 15th century; for, when the council of Constance urged a reformation of the papal court, Martin V saw himself obliged, in 1418, to conclude concordates with the Germans, and soon afterwards, also, with other nations. The popes, however, succeeded, even in the 15th and 16th centuries, in concluding concordates for their advantage. This was the case with the concordates of Aschaffenburg. That, also, Which was made by Leo X and Francis I of France (1516), was chiefly to the advantage of the pope. In later times, in particular, towards the end of the 18th century, the papal court could not any longer maintain a struggle with the spirit of the times and with the secular powers, and was obliged to resign many privileges by concordates. Bonaparte, when first consul of the French republic, concluded a concordate with pope Prus VII, July 15, 1801, which went into operation in April, 1802. It reestablished the Catholic church in France, and has become the basis of the present ecclesiastical constitution of that country. The government obtained by it the right to appoint the clergy; the public treasury gained by the diminution of the large number of metropolitan and episcopal sees to 60; the pope was obliged to give up the plan of restoring the spirits ual orders and the influence which he exercised by means of delegates, but retained the right of the canonical investiture of bishops and the revenues connected with this right. The interests of religion suffered by this compact, inasmuch as most of the dioceses became now too large to be properly administered; and the lower clergy, the very soul of the church, who were in a poor condition before, were made entirely dependent on the government. Louis XVIII concluded, at Rome, with Pius VII (July 11, 1817), a new concordate, by which that of 1516, so injurious to the liberties of the Galhcan VOL. III. 35.

church, was again revived; the concordate of 1801 and the articles organiques of 1802 were abolished; the nation subjected. to an enormous tax by the demand of endowments for 42 new metropolitan and episcopal sees, with their chapters and seminaries; and free scope afforded to the intolerance of the Roman court by the indefinite language of article 10, which speaks of measures against the prevailing, obstacles to religion and the laws of the This revival of old abuses, this church. provision for the hixury of numerous cler-Ical dignitaries at the expense of the nation, could please only the ultra-royalist nobility, who saw in it means for providing their sons with benefices. The nation received the concordate with almost universal disapprobation; voices of the greatest weight were raised against it (Gregoire, Essai historique sur les Libertés de l'Église Gallicane, Paris, 1818; Lanjumais. Appreciation du Projet de Loi rel. aux trois Concordats, 5th cd., Paris, 1818; De Pradt, Les quatre Concordats, Paris, 1818, 3 vols.); and the new ministers saw themselves obliged to withdraw their proposition. The pope was more fortunate in the concordate made with Naples (Feb. 16, 1818), at Terracma, in which stipulations were made for the exclusive establishment of Catholicism in this kingdom—for the independence of the theological seminaries on the secular power; the free disposal of benefices to the value of 12,000 ducats, in Naples, in favor of Roman subjects; the reversion of the revenues of vacant places to the church; unlimited liberty of appeal to the papal chair; the abolition of the royal permission, formerly necessary for the pastoral letters of the bishops; the right of censorship over books; besides many other highly important privileges. The king obtained the right to appoint bishops, to tax the clergy, to reduce the number of the episcopal sees and monasteries, which existed before Murat's The quiet possession of the estates of the church, which had been alienated, was also secured to the proprietors. In the concordate concluded with Bavaria, July 5, 1817, two archbishopries were established for the 2,400,000 Catholics in Bavaria. These were Münich (with the bishopries of Augsburg Wassau and Ratisbon) and Bamburg (with the hishoprics of Würzburg, Eichstadt and Spire). Seminaries, moreover, were instituted and provided with lands; the nonmations were left to the king, with the reservation of the papal right of confirmation; the limits of the civil and ecclesiastical jurisdiction

were precisely settled, and the erection , of new monasteries was promised. This concordate was published in May, 1818. together with the new political constitution, by which all apprehensions for the Protestant church in Bayaria were allayed. (Respeoning the concordate between Prussia and the pope, see German Church and Prussia.) The other German princes have formed a plan for a common concordate with the pope. On the whole, the contest which has been carried on for more than \$00 years between the secular power and the church is as little settled . as it was in the times of Gregory VII and , the emperor Henry IV, and the concordates are to be considered only as temporary agreements, which are followed as long as either party is obliged or thinks it best to observe them. In fact, it is vain to think of putting an end to the dispute, while secular governments maintain that it rests with them to appoint the officerand instructors of the people, and the pope maintains that the authority of the church is pisor in time and superior in degree to any other. The light in which the Roman court views the eessions made in concordates appears from a letter of pope Innocent I, in 1416: Ergo quod pro reinedio necessitas reperit, essante necessitate debet uliqui cessare, quia alius est ordo legitimus, and usurpatio, quam ad prasins tantum fieri tempus imputht The governments, on the contrary, add reservations to the concordates, as in the case of the articles which the French government prefixed to the concordate of 1501, before it was promalgated. Against the appeal to a divine institution, on which the pope founds his authority, the sovereigns maintain the following claims .-- The sovereign of the state is, at the same time, the secular head of the church, and all the power of the church to make a gulations and appoint elencal functionages has been given by him, and remains and i his superintendency; 2, the temporal possessions of the church are properly subject to the state, which has a right to prevent them from becoming excessive; 3, the secular government can probabit such acts of worship as are opposed to the interest and peace of the scate and interfere with the rights of other religious societies; I the state has the right of protecting new sects; 5, the civil rights of subjects (even with regard to the validity and consequences of marriage) are to be exclusively regulated by the laws of the state. It is easily understood that no such contest between church and state can take place

where the church does not claim any pohtical authority, and the sovereign does not consider religion as an instrument for state purposes. Of course there is no such contest in the U. States of America.

Concorda; or concord, personified and worshipped as a goddes? in Rome, where she had several temples, the most important of which was that in the capitol, erected by Camillus. An annual feast was celebrated, in her honor, the 16th of January. She was represented with wreaths of flowers on her head, and in one band two cornicopae, in the other, a bundle of rods or a point granate. Symbolically, Concorda was represented by two hands clasped together, or by the eadneens. (See Greeian Mythology.)

Coverer: a technical word in logic. If we conceive of certain qualities as existing in an object, we then regard them, according to philosophical language, in concrete: but if we think of them separately from the object, we then regard them in abstracto: for example, a just main is a concrete conception, but justice is an abstract idea. (See Philosophy.)

Concretions, morbid, in annual economy, hard substances that occasionally make their appearance in different parts of the body, as well in the solds as in those cavities destined to contain flinds: in the former case, they are denominated concretions or ossifications, in the latter, calcult. The concretions that make there appearance in the solids of the annual body are denonmented pineal concretions, from then being found in that part of the brain called the pincal gland; or salicage concretions, as being discovered, occasiorally, in the salivary glands, or parcredic concretions, which are hard sub stances found in the panereus; or pulmo nary concretions, which have been some times coughed up by consumptive per sons . Or *hepatic* concretions, of which the liger is sometimes full. Concretions have also been found in the *prostate*. These have all been examined by chemists, and found to consist of phosphate of hine and other substances. Concretions have been discovered in the intestines and stomach of man, but more frequently in the bodies Those found in the of other annuals. intestines of a horse were examined by Foureroy, and found to consist of magne-m, pho-phoric acid, ammonia, water and annual matter. (See Calculi.)

Concurrence; the cohabitation of a man with a concubine. Among the Greeks, concubinage was allowed even to married men; the number of their con-

cubines, also, was unlimited. Among the Romans, concubinage was neither unlawful nor disgraceful. It was, moreover, formally permutted to unmarried men, by the Let Julia, and by the Lex Papia Poppæa, but with the provision, that it should be limited to a single concubine, and that only women of mean descent, as freed-women, actresses and the like, should be chosen for the purpose. The children begotten in concubinage were not considered as legitimate, but were called natural, and the . nght of inheritance of the concubine and her children was very much huntel. With the introduction of Christianity, concubmage ceased; and, indeed, Constantine the Great made laws against it. The Code Vapoléon did not expressly forbid concubmage, but the lawful wife could sue for a divorce (since the restoration of the Bourbons, only for separation), in case of the introduction of a concubine by her husband into their common residence. The Prussian code does not allow concubringe, as some authors have asserted, but it establishes two kinds of mairiages, one of which aloes not confer the rank, & c., of the husband on the wife, nor give the children the same rights as those enjoved by the children born in the other kind of marriage. This form of marriage secues to have been allowed by the code emetly for the benefit of poor others of government, whose rank far exceeds then dalary: bin, though it stands in the code, it never has received from the king the authority of law. The ruling fainly, nowever, sometimes contracts such marmages. The present king is married to the princess of Lignitz in this form There is no want of legality in the 'onnexion , it is merely to prevent the wife from becoming a queen, and her cliddren roval princes.

Cospanist, Charles Marie la, a naturalist, born at Paris in 1701, died at the some place in 1774. With an ardegt sornt and a powerful frame, the young Condamne, who had entered the nuhtary profession, gave himself up to pleasure; but he soon renounced the unlitary career, and devoted limiself to the seiences. He entered the academy as adjoint chimists. His desire of knowledge induced him to apply hugself to several sciences, without advancing very deeply in any particular After he had visited the coasts of Asia and Africa on the Mediterranean, he was, in 1736, chosen, with Godin and Bouguer, to determine the figure of the earth, by a measurement to be made in Peru. (See Earth.) He there made the

discovery, that mountains attract heavy bodies, and give them a direction different from that which they would take according to the simple law of gravity—a truth which was afterward confirmed by Maskelyne and Chvendish. Having finished his labors in America, and escaped a thousand dangers, he returned to his native land, after an absence of eight years, and soon after went to Rome, where Benedict XIV gave him a dispensation to marry one of his nieces. Of his curiosity the following anecdote is related. At the execution of Daimens, he mingled with the executioners, in order to let no circumstance of this horrible manner of death They were about to pass unobserved. send him back, but the chief executioner, who knew Condamane, prevented them with these words: " Laissez, messicurs, c'est un amateur." His principal works are his account of his travels, his work on the figare of the earth, and that on the measurement of three degrees of the meridian in . the equatorial regions. Besides these, he published treatises on inoculation for the ~mail-pox.

Coxon? a fortress of France, in the department du Nord, mue leagues and a 5 half S. E. of Lasle. Inhabitants, 6,080. It is, according to the French military termmology, a place de guêrre de premiere classe. During the revolution, it was called Nord-Libre. Its port is much frequented. Cond., Louis de Bourbon, prince of the great Condé), born m 1621; a general of distinguished talents, great advantages of person, and very attractive manners. During the life of his father, he bore the title of duke d'Enghien. He im- . mortalized this name at the battle of Roeros, in which, at the age of 22, he defeated the Spannards (1643). After he had ' arranged every thing for the battle, on the evening previous, he fell into so sound a sleep, that it was necessary to awake : lam when the time for engaging came on. Wherever he appeared, he was victorious. He was so fortunate as to repair the consequences of a defeat of marshal Turenne. He besieged Dunkirk in sight of the Spanish firmy, and gained this place for France. m 1646. He was equally fortunate m putting a stop to the civil war which Mazann had occasioned, who was afterwards obliged to seek the support of Conde. Jealous of the glory of the junce, and fearing his pride, Mazarin, in 1650, caused his deliverer to be brought captive to Vincennes, and did not restore him his freedom until after the expiration of a year. The offended Conde now entered into

negotiations with Spain, and fought against his native country with such success, that he advanced almost to the gates of Paris. He obtained possession of the neighboring places, while Turenne was approaching the capital in order to cover it. Both . generals fought with great valor, very near the suburb St. Antoine, and added to their former reputation (July 2, 1652). A short time after, peace was concluded, in which, however. Conde did not concur, but went The peace of the to the Netherlands. Pyrenees, in 1659, at last restored this great general to France. After Turenne's death, in 1675, he commanded, for a long time, the French army in Germany. The gont at last compelled him to retire to his beautiful estate at Chantilly, near Paris, where he devoted himself to the sciences. Here he was visited by Corneille, Bossuet, Raeme, Boileau, Bourdaloue, who enjoyed his conversation as much as he did theirs. He died in 1687 at Fontamebleau. In the church of St. Louis, at Paris, a monument was erected to him.

Coxpe, Lois- Joseph de Bourbon, prince of; born at Chantilly, in 1736; only son of the duke of Bourbon and the princess of Hesse-Rhemiels. By the death of both his parents, he came, in his 5th year, under the guardianship of count Charoleis, his micle. The prince was educated with great strictness, and made some progress in the sciences. In 1753, he married the princess of Rohan-Soubise, who, in 1756, hore him the prince Bourbon-Conde the seven years' war, he distinguished hunself by his conrage and skill, and, in 1762, gamed a victory, at Johannisberg, over the hereditary prince of Brunswick. True to the old constitution, he opposed Louis XV, on account of the introduction of a newly formed parliament, and was, on this account, band-hed, but soon recalled. His leisure he devoted to study, in file adly intimacy with the most learned men of his time, and to the embelishment of Chantilly, where Paul 1 visited him. He was wounded in a duck with count Agoult. In the revolution, he emigrated, in 1789, to Brussels, and tion there to Turm: he afterwards formed, in 1792, at Worms, a little corps of emigrant nobility, 6506 men strong, which joined the Austrian army under Wurmser. After an interview with Gustavus III. of Sweden, at Aix-k-Chapelle, in 1791, on the subject of measures is be undertaken, he was summoned at Worms, by a deputy of the national assembly, and by the king himself, to return to France wahin 14 days, under penalty of the lose of his estates. With the other

princes, he returned an answer of refusal, from Coblentz. On the breaking out of the war, his corps distinguished itself; but the Austrian plan of operations did not agree, with the views of the emigrants; therefore the connexion of prince Condé with Pichegru had no results. In 1795, he entered with his corps into the English service. In 1796, he fought in Suabia. In 1797, he entered the Russian service, and marched with his corps to Russia, where he was most hospitably received into the residence of Paul I; and returned, in 1799, to the Rhine, under Suwarotl. In 1800, after. the separation of Russia from the coalition, he reentered the English service. campaign of 1800 ended the military career of the prince. He hved in England till 1813, in which year his second wife, the princess of Monaco, died. He returned to Paris, May 14, 1814, received the 10th regiment of the line, and the office of colonel-general of infantry, as also that of grand mastre de France, and the protectorate of the order of St. Louis. He attended the celebrated royal council, March 17, 1815, fled with the king to Ghent, and returned with him to Paris in July, where, being appointed president or a bureau of the chamber of peers, he remaned some time, but at last pared to Chantilly, where he had formerly written the interesting Essai sur la Vie du Grand Conde. par. L. J. de Bourbon, son 4me Deseendant, of which two editions have appeared since 1806. He died at Paris in 1818. His grandson was the duke d'Enghien. (q. v.)

Coxet, Louis Henry Joseph, duke of Bourbon, son of the preceding, born April 13, 1756, was educated to the profession of arms. He had hardly passed the age of childhood, when he was inspired with the most violent-passion for Loinsa Maria Theresa of Orleans, 'It was resolved that he should travel two years, and then recove the hand of the Jady. But the mapatience of the prince would not admit of this delay. He carried off his mistress from the convent where she resided, married her, and, in 1772, she bore him the prince d'Englien. Condé's impetuosity occasioned a duel between him and the count d'Artois, in 1778. This was followed by his banishment to Chantilly. He likewise quarrelled with his wife, and, in 1780, separated himself from her (she died m 1822). In 1782, he was present, with the count d'Artors, at the siege of Gibraltar. distinguished himself there, and was appointed marshal. The pride of his name, the ardor of his character, and his confi-

dence in the power of the king, caused him, in the beginning of the revolution, to treat with contempt a people in a state of violent fermentation. He continually advised the use of force. In 1789, he emigrated, with his father, to Turm, joined the corps of French emigrants, and, in .: 1792/1793 and 1794, showed the ancient courage of the Condés. In 1795, he embarked at Bremen for Quiberon, in order to make a diversion in La Vendee, but was obliged to return to England without suc-Russia, and, in 1799, returned to the Rhine. After the dissolution of the royal French army, he went to England, in 1800, where he hved till May, 1814. May 15, 1814, he was appointed, at Paris, colonel-general of the light-infantry, and, on Napoleon's return from Elba, m 1815, received the chief command in the departments of the west. But he was obliged, by a convention, to embark from Nantes. He sailed. to Spain, whence he returned, in August, through Bordeaux and Nautes, to Paris.

Condensation. Besides the mechanreal powers (see Condenser), there are also chemical means for converting gaseous fluids into hands by condensation, for example, steam into water, by means of Volta gives the name of condenser of electricity to an instrument invested by onn for collecting and measuring electrici-\ty m cases in which it is feebly developed; and an apparatus for the collection of scu-ible caloric is called a condenser of

Condenser: a phenmatic engine, or syringe, whereby air uncommon quantity of air may be crowded into a given space ; so that sometimes 10 atmospheres, or 10 times as much air as there is at the same time in the same space without the engme, may be thrown in by means of it, and its egress prevented by valves properly

disposed. (See Pneumatics.)

Conditiac, Stephen Bonnot de among the French the founder of the sensual system, born in 1715, at Grenoble, lived, like his brother, the abbe Mably, from his youth, devoted to study. His Essai sur • l'Origine des Connaissances humaines (1746, 2 vols.) first drew the attention of the world to a thinker, who, with much acuteness of mind, sought to explain, by the law of the assocration of ideas, almost all, the phenomena of the human mind. Although Locke's discoveries in the department of psychology, founded upon experience, might have had an influence on this work, yet no one can deny to Condillac the ment of having made more pro-

Ho'" found inquiries on many points. himself, however, thought that he had not sufficiently explained the first principles of the faculties of the human mind, and therefore wrote the Traité des Systèmes (1749, 2 vols.), in which he frequently referred to more accurate observa-Any one would misunderstand Condillac, who should believe that he disapproved of all systems; but instead of those maxims and theories which Des Cartes, Spinoza, Malebranché, &c., bad cess. In 1707, he went with the corps to laid down as the basis of their speculations, he demanded observations of the sumplest kind. His Traité des Sensations (1751, 2 vols.) is interesting for the ingelaious manner, in which he has explained the consciousness of impressions on the Mornfied by the supposition that he had followed the course of ideas in Diderot's and Buffon's works, he wrote his Traité des Animaux (1775), in which he refuted Buffon's opinions, by principles which he had advanced in his Traité des Sensations. The sagacity and the clearness which distinguish all Condillac's writings obtained for him the distinction of being chosen instructer of the infant duke of Parma, nephew of Louis XV. intimate freed-lip which subsisted between hum and his colleague, M. de Keraho, made this situation the more agreeable. To this cause we are indebted for his acute work, the Cours d'Études (1755, 13 vols.), in which, with his peculiar talent of explanation, he investigates the external signs of ideas. Thus his Grammar necessarily became a universal one; his Art of Writmg, a course of instruction for giving the most sunable expression to trains of thought. With the same view, he composed lus L'Art de juger, and L'Art de penser, which constitute a part of the Cours d'Eludes. His history has been less successful than his other works. Considered apart from the tameness of its execution, it might be objected to it, that it represents occurrences in subservience to preestablished theories. Condillac returned, after the completion of the education of the young prince, to Pans, where, in 1768, he was admitted into the French academy, which, however, he did not visit again after the day of his entrance. His work, Le Commerce et le Gouvernement consideres relativement l'un à l'autre (1776), which is an application of his analytical method to several problems in the administration of the state, met, however, with little approbation. His Logic, the last of his works, he wrote by request, in 1780, as a manual for the Polish schools. The

35 \*

tracing back of the thoughts to their sim-. plest beginnings, as the most certain means of finding the truth, is urgently enjoined by him. Condillac died at his estate of Flux, near Bougenci, Aug. 3, 1780. His Langue des Calculs first appeared in 1798. The collection of his works, the revision of which he had begun, appeared at Paris in 1798, in 23 vols., and again in the same year, in 35 vols. A later edition, of 1803, consists of 32 vols., 12mo. (See French Philosophy.)

Corpition. (See Bond.)

CONDOR. The popular name of the great vulture of the Andes, formed by a mispronunciation of the Indian name kunter, which, according to Humboldt, is derived from another word in the language of the Incas, signifying to small well. This species (vultur gryphus 1., hodic cathartes gryphus) belongs to the vulturine family of diurnal rapacious birds, and the genus cathartes of Higer, &c., which is distinguished by the following characters:-the bill is elongated and straight at base: the upper mandible is covered to the middle by the cere; the nostrils are · medial, approximate, oval, pervious and . maked; the tongue is canaliculate, with serrated edges; the head is clongated, depressed and rugous; the taisus rather slender; the lateral toes equal; the middle toe is much the longest, the inner free, and the hind one shortest; the first priarrary is rather short, the third and fourth are longest -- The natural lustory of the condor was in a fair way to rival the ancient fables of griffins, basilisks and dragons, or even of exceeding the roc of Sinbad the Sailor, in extravagant evaggeration, until that admirable and judicious observer, Von Humboldt, placed it upon the basis of truth. By divesting this bird of all fictitious attributes, and bringing it into its proper family, he certainly spoiled a great number of romanue negratives of their principal embellishment; but he amply compensated therefor, by giving this additional proof, that there are no monsters in nature, and that even when she appears to depart most from the ordinary standard, as to size, situation or habits, her beings are parts of a single plan, in which all the agents/are modifications of one great type. We therefore feel grate-ful to the indefatigable naturalist, whose residence of 17 months in the native mountains of the condor enabled him its, and to furnish us with satisfying statements of realmes, an place of the wild and meants, so long imposed

upon mankind. His careful measurements establish the fact, that the wonderfully gigantic condor is not generally larger than the lammergeyer, or bearded vulture of the Alps, which it closely resembles in various points of character. We shall soon see whether the rational student has lost by stripping the condor of qualities bestowed upon it solely by credulous ignorance, and whether the truth to be told of its history be not more interesting than all the fictions. Upon a chain of ,mot utains, whose summits, lifted far above the highest clouds, are robed in snows coëval with creation, we find a race of birds, whose magnitude and might, compared with others of the feathered kind, is in something like the proportion of their huge domicils to earth's ordinary elevations. Above all animal life, and at the extreme limit of even Alpine vegetation, these birds prefer to dwell, inhaling an air too highly ramified to be endured, unless by creatures expressly adapted thereto. From such immense elevations they soar, still more sublimely, upwards, into the darkblue heavens, until their great bulk diminishes to a scarcely perceptible speck, or is lost to the aching sight of the observer. In these pure fields of other, unvisited even by the thunder-cloud—regions which may be regarded as his own exclusive domainthe condor delights to sail, and with piercing glance surveys the surface of the earth, towards which he never stoops his wing, unless at the call of hunger. Surely this power to waft and sustain himself in the lothest regions of the air; his ability to endure, unmjured, the exceeding cold attendant on such remoteness from the carth: and to breathe, with ease, in an atmosphere of such extreme rarity; together with the keemiess of sight, that, from such vast heights, can minutely scan the objects below,—are sufficiently admirable to entitle the condor to our attention, though we no longer regard'n as a prodigy, or as standing altogether solitary in the scale of creation.—Notwithstanding that the condor is a lover of the clearest and purest air, it must be confessed that he is a carnon bird, and is quickly fured to the plains by the sight or scent of a carcass, especially of a sheep or ox. To such a feast considerable numbers repair, and commence their filthy banque**s** by first plucking out the eyes, and then tearing away the tongue of the animal, their favorite delicacies; next to daily to observe its peculiarities and hab-1 these, the bowels are the morsels most engerly sought for, and devoured with that greedy gluttony which distinguishes the whole vulture tribe. The appetite of these

birds seems to be limited only by the quantity of food that can be gorged into. their stomachs; and when thus overloaded, they appear sluggish, oppressed, and unable to raise themselves into the air. The Indians profit by this condition to revenge themselves on the condors for the many robberies which they commit upon' their flocks, and, watching while they eat, until flight has become exceedingly difficult, attack and secure them by nooses, or knock them down with poles, before they can get out of the way. If the condor, thus louded, succeeds in rising a short dis-. tance from the ground, he makes a violent effort, kicking his feet towards his throat, and relieves himself by vomiting, when he soon ascends out of reach. Many, however, are surprised, and captured or killed before they are able to ascend. But the condor does not exclusively feed upon dead or putrefying flesh; he attacks and destroys deer, vicunas, and other middling-sized or small quadrupeds; and, when punched by hunger, a pair of these birds will attack a bullock, and, by repeated wounds with their beaks and claws, harass him, until, from fatigue, he thrusts out his tongue, which they immediately seize, and tear from his head; they also plack out the eyes of the poor beast, which, if not speedily rescued, must soon fall a prey to then voracity. It is said to be very common to see the cattle of the Indians, on the Andes, suffering from the severe wounds inflicted by these rapacious birds. It does not appear that they have ever attacked the human race. When Humboldt, accompanied by his friend Bonpland, was collecting plants near the lunits of perpetual snow, they were daily in company with several condors, which would suffer themselves to be quite closely approached without exhibiting signs of alarm, though they never showed any dis-They were position to act offensively. not accused, by the Indians, of ever carrying off children, though frequent opportunities were presented, had they been so disposed. Humboldt believes that no authenticated case can be produced, in which the lammergeyer of the Alps ever carried off a child, though so currently accused of such theff, but that the possibility of the evil has led to the belief of its actual ex-The condor is not known to build a nest, but is said to deposit its eggs on the naked rocks. The eggs are reported to be altogether white, and 3 or 4. inches long. When hatched, the female as said to remain with the young for a whole year, in order to provide them with

food, and to teach them to supply themselves. In relation to all these points, satisfactory information still remains to be desired. We have seen that hunger impels the condors to descend to the plains, and it is also true, that they are occasionally seen even on the shores of the Southern ocean, in the cold and temperate regions of Chile, where the Andes so closely, approach the shores of the Pacific. Their sojourn, however, in such situations, is but for a short time, as they seem to require a much cooler and more highly rarified air, and prefer those lofty solitudes where the barometer does not rise higher than 16 degrees. When they descend to the plains, they alight on the ground, rather than upon trees or other projections, as the straightness of their toes renders the first mentioned situation most chaible. Humboldt saw the condor only in New Grenada, Quito and Peru, but was informed that it follows the chain of the Andes from the equator to the 7th degree of north latitude, into the province of Antioqua. There is now no doubt of its appearing even in Mexico, and the south-western territory of . the U. States.-The head of the male condor is furnished with a sort of cartilagmous crest, of an colong figure, wrinkled, and quite slender, resting upon the forehead and hunder part of the beak, for, about a fourth of its length; at the base of the bill it is free. The female is desti-tute of this crest. The skin of the head, m the male, forms folds behind the eye, which descend towards the neck, and termmate in a flabby, dilatable or erectile membrane. The structure of the crestus altogether pecuhar, bearing very little resemblance to the cock's comb, or the wattles of a turkey. The auricular orifice is of considerable size, but concealed by folds of the temporal membrane. The eye, which is peculiarly elongated, and farther distant from the beak than in the eagles, is of a purple line, and very brilliant. The neck is uniformly marked by parallel longitudinal wrinkles, though the membrane is not so flabby as that covering the throat, which appear to be caused by the frequent habit of drawing the neck downwards, to conceal or warm it within the collar or hood. The collar, in both sexes, is a fine silken down, forming a white band between the naked part of the seck and beginning of the true feathers, and is rather more than 2 inches broad. I not entirely surrounding the neck, but leaving a very narrow naked space in front. The rest of the surface, the back, wings and tail,. are of a slightly grayish-black, though

sometimes they are brilliantly black; the the condor of the Andes, we cannot avoid feathers are triangular, and placed over each other tile-wise. Humboldt never saw male condors with white backs, though descriptions of such have been given by Molina and others. The primaries are black; the secondaries in both sexes, are exteriorly edged with white. The wing coverts, however, offer the best distinction of the sexes, being grayish-black in the female, while, in the male, their tips, and even half of the shafts, are white, so that his wings are ornamented with beautiful white spots. The tail is blackish, wedgeshaped, rather short, and contains 12 feathers. The feet are very robust, and of an ashen-blue color, marked with white wim-The claws are blackish, very long. and but slightly hooked. The 4 toes are amited by an obvious but delicate membrane; the fourth is the smallest, and has the most crooked claw. The following are the dimensions of the largest male condor described by Humboldt (it was killed on the eastern declivity of Chimborazo):-length, from up of the beak to the tip of the tail, 3 feet 3 inches 2 lines (French); height, when perched, with the neck moderately extended, 2 feet 8 inches; entire length of head and beak, 6 niches • 11 lines; beak alone, 2 inches 9 lines; breadth of beak, closed, 1 inch 2 lines, senvergure, or from the uptof one extended wing to the other, 5 feet 9 inches; breadth of leg bone, 11 lines: length of longest toe, without the claw, 3 mehes 11 lines: claw, 2 inches; length of two lateral toes, with their claws, 3 mehes 7 lines; claw, 2 inghes 3 lines; shortest toe and claw! I anch & lines. From this measurement, it as obvious that the condor does not exceed the average size of the largest European vulture; and Humboldt states that he never saw a condor whose envergure measured more than 9 French feet. He was also assured, by very credible inhabitants of the country, that they never raw one whose enreigure was giester than 11 feet. He finally concludes that 14 feet is about the maximum size to which the largest condor would attain. Two or three specimens of the condor lawe been exhibited in Philadelphia and New York within the tast 7 years, and were redently not full grown birds; yet he envergure of the largest of there measured H English feet. The envergure of the specimen belonging to the Leverign museum, described by Dr. Shaw, measured 14 English feet. Notwithstanding, therefore, what is said by Humboidt, of the general correspondence in size of the Alpine lammergeyer and

believing that a full grown individual of the latter species would be much more than: a match, in every respect, for any European species. The condor is peculiarly tenadious of life, and has been observed. after having been hung for a considerable tune by the neck, in a noose, to rise and walk away quickly when taken down for dead, and to receive several pistol bullets in its body without appearing greatly injured. The great size and strength of its plumage defends its body, to a consider-Table degree, from the effects of shot. It is easily killed when shot, or struck sufficiently hard, about the head.

Condorcanger, Joseph Gabriel: an American Spaniard, who, having been ill treated by a magistrate, and sustained an act of injustice from the audiencia of Linm, attempted to redress his own grievances, and the oppressions of the Indians, by inciting them to insurrection against the Spanish government in 1780. He was an artful and intrepid man; and, with a view to conciliate the Indians, he assumed the name of Tupac-Amaru, one of the aucient incas, professing a design to restore the ancient dynasty of Manco-Capae in Peru, a project which had been entertained by sir Walter Raleigh, in the reign of queen Elizabeth. The scheme was, at first, very successful. The spirit of revolt extended far and wide into the interior of the country; the contest lasted three years, and the pretended Tupac-Amaru was haded inca of Peru. His conduct, however, proved obnoxions to the Spanish settlers, and the efforts of the Indians were toe feeble and desultory to support so greantic an undertaking. Troops were sem against him, and, being described by his followers, he was taken and put to death.

Condorcer, Marie Jean Nicolas Carital, marques de ; born Sept. 17, 1743, at Ribemont, near St. Quentin, of one of the oldest families in Dauphiny. By the assistance of his uncle Jacques Marie de Condorcet, bishop of Lisieux, he was educated in the college of Navarre, at Pans. At a public examination, which was attended by D'Alembert, Claraut and Fontame, the manner in which he solved a mathematical proposition gained their applause, and the youth of 16 was so much exented by their praises, that, from that time, he resolved to devote himself entirely to the exact sciences. The duke of Rochefoucault was his patron, and introduced him into the world at the age of 19. But its allurements could not render him 'unfaithful to the severe studies which he had chosen: At the age of 21, he presented to the academy of sciences an Essai sur le Calcul Intégral, which caused which he had given to the world with Fontaine to observe, that he was jealous of the young man. His Mémoire sur le Problème des Trois Points appeared in 1767. Both works were afterwards united under the title of Essais d'Analyse. The merit of this work gained for him, in 1769, the distinction of a seat in the academy of With astomshing facility and sciences. versatility, Condorcet treated the most dif- serted that the refusal of the post of inficult problems in mathematics; but his structer to the dauphin induced him to genius inclined him rather to lay down beautiful formulas than to pursue them to useful applications. Condorcet also wrote academical culogies, as Fontenelle's talents in thus department were very much missed. Although his Eloges des Acadé-miciens Morts avant 1699 (Paris, 1773) leave much to be desired, yet they were received with so much applause, that the place of secretary of the academy, in 1777, was not refused to him even by his rivals. This office imposed on him the necessity of investigating the various departments of the sciences (the most distinguished promoters of which he was obliged to culogize), in order to be able to exhibit the latest discoveries; but he did not allow hmiself to be drawn away from his mathcumulcal studies. His theory of comets gained, in 1777, the prize offered by the academy of Berhn, and he enriched the transactions of the learned societies of Petersburg, Berlin, Bologna, Turin and Paris with profound contributions in the department of the higher mathematics. The aversion of the minister Maurepas to Condorcet delayed his entrance into the French academy till 1782. His maugural discourse was on the advantages which society may derive from the union of the physical and moral sciences. Being intimately connected with Turgot, he was led into a thorough examination of the system of the economists, and his acquaintance with D'Alembert made him take an active part in the Encyclopédie, for which he wrote many articles. He was the friend of most of the contributors to this great work. In all his writings, he displays an exalted view of human nature—a circumstance much to his honor, considering the character of those with whom he was This feeling determined him associated. in favor of the cause of the American colonies during their contest with England. He was also a friend of the custaved Negroes, and was anxious for their restoration to freedom (Reflexions sur l'Esclavage

des Negres). In 1787, Condorcet published Voltaire's Life, a sort of sequel to the complete edition of Voltaire's works. notes and illustrations, and therein expressed the admiration which the versatility of talent and the zeal in the cause of humanity of this great man had awakened in him. Meanwhile his opinions of the rights of citizens and of men, estranged him from the duke of Rochefoucault, his former benefactor. His enemies have asjoin the popular party. The real cause was his cuthusiasm for the great and good. He wrote, in favor of the popular cause, Sur les Assemblées provinciales, sub-sequently in the Bibliothèque de l'Homme public and the Feuille villageoise. Under a cold exterior, he possessed the most ar-dent passions. D'Alembert compared him to a volcano covered with snow. His Fruille villageoise, in which he simply stated the first principles of political economy, and of the relations of states, exerted considerable influence. On the intelligence of the flight of the king, he represented, in a speech which was highly admired, the royal dignity as an anti-ocial institution. The royal treasury, of which he was appointed, in 1791, commissary, received, at his suggestion, the name of national treasury. He was finally elected a deputy of Paris to the legislative assembly, and very soon, though his bodily strength seemed madequate for the office, he was chosen secretary of the assembly. In February, 1792, he was appointed president; composed the proclamation addressed to the French and to Europe, which announced the abolition of the royal dignity; spoke in the national convention, where he had a seat as deputy of the department of Assne, for the most part, indeed, with the Girondists; but, on the trial of Louis, he was in favor of the severest sentence not capital; at the same time, he proposed to abolish capital punishments, except in case of crimes against the state. This participation in the proceedings against the king was the reason why his name was struckoff from the let of combers of the academies of Petersburg and Berlin. The revolution of May 31, 1793, presented the constitution which Condorcet had drawn up from being accepted. The constitution then adopted he attacked without moderation or reserve, and was, in consequence, denounced at the bar (q v.), July 8. He was accused, Oct. 3, of being an accomplice of Brissot. To save his life, he concoaled himself, and was declared out of, the protection of the law. Madame Verney, a woman of noble feelings, secreted him for eight mouths. She procured him the means of sub-istence, and even wrote little poems to colliven his spirits. While in this retreat, without the assistance of others, and surrounded by all the horrors of his situation, Condorcet wrote his excellent Esquisse d'un Tableau historique des Progres de l'Esprit humain, full of enthusiasm for that liberty, the degeneracy In answer to the encouraging words of his protectress, he wrote the Epitre d'un Polonais evile en Siberie à sa Femme, full of those noble sentiments which had been the rules of his life. He at last learned from the public papers, that death was denounced against all those who concealed a proscribed undividual. In spite of the prayers of the generous woman who had given him refuge, he left her, and fled in disguise from Paris. He wandered about for a long time, until, driven by hunger, ne entered a small inn at Clamar, where he was arrested, as a suspicious person, by a member of the revolutionary tribunal of Clanar, and thrown into prison, to undergo a more strict examination. On the following morning, March 28, 1794, he was found dead on the floor of his room, apparently having swallowed poison, which he always carried about him, and which nothing but his love for his wife and daughter had prevented him from using before. A collection of his numerous writings, complete with the exception of his mathematical works, appeared in Paris in 1804 (Œuvres completes, publics par Garal et Cabanis, 21 vols.). An excellent historscal notice of them is to be found in the Notice sur la Vie et les Ouvrages de Condorcet, par Antoine Diannyers, 1796. The Mémoires de Condorest sur la Revocution Française is a poor work.

those bands of soldiers which were fiequent in Italy towards the end of the iniddle ages, who sought for service in every war, and fought not for their country, but for pay and plunder, and offered their assistance to every sarry which could pay them. These bands originated in the endless wars rate fends of the Irahan states and governments at that time, and the whole military power soon came into their hands. They consisted principally of men too ignorant or too indolent to obtain an honest livelihood, or who wished to escape the punishment of some crime.

They included, however, many people who had been deprived of their fortunes by these wars. As these men had not the slightest interest in those who hired them, but that of being paid, and of finding opportunities for plunder, wars terminated with very little bloodshed, sometimes with none; for when the bands of condottieri met, the smallest in number not unfrequently surrendered to the other. The most ambitious among them, however; had higher views. Such was Francesco Storza, who, being chosen by the Milanof which caused him so much suffering. • est to command their army, made himself, in 1451, their duke and lord, and whose posterity continued to possess sovereign power. There is little difference between most of the condottieri and some of the nobler kinds of robbers. (See Captain.)

CONDUCTOR OF LIGHTNING IS an Instrument, by means of which either the electricity of the clouds—the cause of lightning —is conducted, without explosion, into the earth, or the lightning itself is intercepted and conducted, in a particular way, into the earth or water, without injuring buildings, ships, &c. This invention belongs to doctor Franklin. While making experiments on electricity, he observed that a pointed metallic wire, if brought near an electrified body, gradually deprives the latter of its electricity in such a manner that no sparks appear. fore, as clouds are electrified, he thought that they might be deprived of their electricity (which is the cause of lightning and of its striking, if a pointed metallic rod were fastered upon the highest part of a building, and a wire carried down from this into the earth, so that the electricity of the cloud, attracted by the point, might be conducted into the ground. Franklin's conjecture proved to be well founded, and conductors were soon afici introduced into many countries. They at first consisted of an iron rod, running down the sides of CONDOTTILE (leaders): the captains of a building into the earth, while its point rose several feet above the building. Experience, thus far, shows the best construction of conductors to be this :- The conductor consists of a rod of iron, an mch thick, to the upper end of which is attached a tapering piece of copper, 8 or 9 inches in length, gilded, to prevent its rusting. This rod is fixed to the highest part of a building, in such a way as to rise at least 5 or 6 feet above it; to this are fastened strips of copper, 3 or 4 inches broad, and riveted together, which must reach to the earth, and be carried into it about a foot deep. The strips are to be

carefully nailed upon the roof and against the wall of the building. The first conductors in Europe were creeted at Payneshill, in England, by doctor Watson, in church, at Hamburg, in Germany, in 1769. In modern times, conductors have been , proposed to supersede those formerly in use. Among them is the cheap one of Nicolai, made of strips of tin, which has already been used; for instance, at Lohmen, near Pirna.

Conduit (French), in architecture ; a long, narrow passage between two walls, or under ground, for secret communication between various apartments, of which many are to be found in old buildings; also a canal of pipes, for the conveyance of water; a sort of subterraneous or con-The construction of cealed aqueduct. conducts requires science and care. The ancient Romans excelled in them, and formed the lower parts, whereon the water ran, with cement of such an excellent quality, that it has become as hard as the stone itself, which it was employed to join. There are conduits of Roman aqueducts still remaining, of from five to six feet in height, and three feet in width. Conduits, in modern times, are generally pipes of wood, lead, iron, or pottery, for conveying the water from the main spring or reseryours to the different houses and places where it is required.

Cose, in geometry; a solid figure having a circle for its base, and its top terminated in a point, or rerter. This definition, which is commonly given, is not, in mathematical strictness, correct, because no circle, however small, can become a mathematical point. But these deficiencies of mathematical strictness connected with constructive geometry, which is based on figures and diagrams, are avoided by analyncal geometry, which operates without figures.—The word cone is derived from the Latin conus. The figure might be called the round pyramid, according to the definition of a pyramid. Cones are either perpendicular, if the axis, that is, the line from the vertex to the centre of the base, stands perpendicularly on the base; or oblique, or scalenous, if the axis does not form a right angle with the base.) If a cone is car parallel with its base, the section, of course, is a circle: if, however, the section is made obliquely, that is, hearer to the base at one end than at the other, a curve is obtained, which is called an ellipse. If the section be made parallel with the axis, perpendicularly from the vertex, or so as to make a greater angle

with the base than is made by the side of the cone, the curve obtained is called a Thirdly, the section may be huperbola. made parallel with one side of the cone. 1762, and upon the steeple of St. James, in which case the curve is called a parabola. These three lines, figures and planes are called conic sections, and form one of the most important parts of mathematics, which is distinguished for elegance, demonstrating, with surprising simplicity and beauty, and in the most harmonious connexion, the different laws, according to which the Creator has made worlds to revolve, and the light to be received and reflected, as well as the ball thrown into, the air by the playful boy, to describe its line, until it falls again to the earth. Few branches of mathematics delight a youthful mind so much as conic sections; and the emotion which the pupil manifests, when they unfold to him the great lawof the nuiverse, might be called natural Considering come sections as opening the mind to the true grandem and beauty of the mathematical world, whilst all the preceding study only teaches the alphabet of the science, we are of opinion that the study of them might be advantageously extended beyond the walls of colleges, into the higher seminaries for the "ducation of females. The Greeks investigated the properties of the come sections with admirable acuteness A work on them is still extant, written by Apollonius of Perge. The English have done a great deal towards perfecting the theory of them. In teaching conic sections to young people, the descriptive method (resting on diagrams) ought always to be connected with the analytic method.

CONFIDERATION, GERMAN. (See Gomany.)

CONFIDERATION OF THE PRINCES (OF Germany; in German, Furstenbund), The occasion of the confederation of the German princes was the extinction of the male line of the family of the elector of ·Bayaria, by the death of the elector Maxinuhan Joseph, Dec. 30, 1777. After his death, his territories fell to the nearest collateral relation, Charles Theodore, elector of the Palatinate. This prince, being without children, had yielded to the propostions of the house Austria, and obliged himself, by the convenien of Vienna, Jan. 3, 1778, to renounce all claim to the inheritance. This convention was opposed by the presumptive heir of the Palatmate, the duke of Deux-Ponts, and also by the elector of Saxony, nephew to the deceased elector of Bavaria. Both princes sought the intercession of Frederic the Great of Prus-

who, after fruitless negotiations on the months, this league was joined by the electsubject with Austria, took up arms. At the peace of Teschen, May 13, 1779, which anded this short war for the Bavarian sucta cession, the Convention of Vienna was anmulled. Austria obtained of Bavaria merely the Innviertel, with Braunau, and Charles Theodore received possession of the rest of the territories. France and Russia, the allies of Prussa, guarantied the peace. Some years after, the emperor Joseph II again thought of enlarging and strengthening the Austrian monarchy by the addition of the state of Bavaria, and the empress of Russia proposed an exchange of the Austrian Netherlands for Bayaria. The elector Charles Theodore was to have the Austrian Netherlands, with the exception of Luxemburg and Namur, with the utle of king of Burgundy. The elector was induced to agree to this by the Austrian ambassador, Von Lehrbach; the duke of Deux-Ponts, the presumptive heir, by count Romanzoff, the Russian ambassador; and both were promised, in addition to what they received by exchange, the sum of 3000 floring from the Austrian coffers. At the same time, the duke was told that the consent of the elector had been secured, and that, the exchange would take place, even without his concurrence. But the duke afterwards refused his consent to the exchange of the and of his forefathers, and again had recourse to Frederic. This monarch supported with zeal the remonstrance sent by the duke to the empress Catharine of Russia, and received a communication from the empress, that she thought the exchange advantageous to both parties, but that it ought not to take place without their mutual consent. though Louis XVI, who had guarantied the peace of Teschen, and would not consent to the exchange, now caused the king of Prussia to be assured that Joseph II, his ally, had given up the plan, on account of the opposition of the duke of Deux-Ponts, the court of Vienna still refused to make satisfactory arrangements. Frederic II therefore, in March, 1785, induced the electors of Saxony and Hanover to form a league, and, in spite of the opposition of Austria, the terms of union were signed in Berlin, July 23, 1785 - 30 Brandenburg, Saxony and Hanox t, for the support and - defence of the firman constitution, agreeably to the terms of the peace of Westphalia and the treaties which followed, of the electoral capitulations, and of the other laws of the empire. The measures to be taken against the exchange of Bavaria were provided for by a secret article. In a few

or of Mentz and his coadjutor, Dalherg the 'elector of Treves, the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, the margraves of Anspach and Baden, and the dukes of Deux-Ponts, of Brunswick, of Mecklenburg, of Weimar and Gotha, with the prince of Anhalt-Dessau. The views of Austria were frustrated by this open act of the king of Prussia, and both Austria and Russia entirely relinquished their project. (See Von Dohm, Ucber den deutschen Fürrstenbund—on the Confederation of the German Princes, Berlin, •1785: John Müller's Description of the Confederation of the German Princes; and Reuss's Deutsche Staatskanzlei, vol 13). This confederation is to be considered as one of the many proofs of the utter insufficiency of the German empire for the purposes of a general government.

CONFEDERATION OF THE RHINE. In the war of, 1805, which turned out so unfortunately for Austria, several of the princes of the south of Germany were obliged to ally themselves to France, or did it voluntarily. The peace of Presburg (Dec. 26, 1805) gave the first impulse to the entire dissolution of the German empire, by conferring crowns on the electors of Bayaria and Würtemberg, and on both, as well as on Baden, complete sover ignty, such as had been already exercised by the other great German states. Soon after (May 28, 1806), the first German elector, arch-chancellor of the empire, announced to the diet that he had appointed cardinal Fesch, uncle of Napoleon, his coadjutor and successor,-an act inconsistent with the constitution of the empire. Ultimately, 16 German princes made a formal declaration of their separation from the emperor and the empire, in the act of confederation signed at Paris, July 12, 1806, by the kings of Bavaria and Wurtemberg, the elector arch-chancellor of the empire, the elector of Baden, the new duke of Cleves and Berg (Joachim Murat), the landgrave of Hesse-Darmstadt, the princes of Nas-sau-Usingen and Nassau-Weilburg, Hohenzollern-Hechingen, and Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, of Salm-Salm and Salm-Kyrburg, the duke of Ahremberg, the princes of Isenburg-Birstein and of Liechtenstein, and the count Von der Leyen. This was communicated to the diet Aug. 1, 1806. They assigned, as the reason for this separation, the deficiencies of the constitution of the German empire, and invited the other members of the empire to join their confederation. The French ambassador, Bacher, amounced, on the same day, that his sovereign would no

longer acknowledge a German empire. Rinne, he was not recognised as a caper of (See Germany.) The emperor Francis II resigned his dignity as head of the German empire Aug. 6, being induced to take this step, according to his declaration, by the demands contained in several articles of the peace of Presburg, and the new confederation of the German states, which he considered inconsistent with his rank as head of the empire. After the signing of the act of confederation, to which the name of the prince of Liechtenstein was prince primate; the elector of Baden, the landgrave of Hesse-Darmstadt, and the duke of Berg, received each the title of grand-duke, with royal privileges and rights; Nassau-Usingen was raised to a duchy, and Von der Leyen to a principality. The emperor of France adopted the title of protector of the confederation of the Rhine. By the establishment of this confederation, the following states lost their political independence:—the imperial free city of Nuremberg, which was ceded to Bavara; Frankfort, to the prince-primate; the principality of Heitersheim, belonging to the order of the knights of St. John, which became subject to Baden; and the burggravate of Friedberg, to Hesse-Damistadt. Furthermore, by mediatisation, the princes of Nassau and Orange-Pudda, of Hohenlohe, Schwarzenberg, and many others the landgrave of Hesse-Homburg, the dukes of Corswarem-Looz and of Croy, many counts of the empire, and all the former knights of the empire, were subjected to the princes of the confederation of the Rhme. These mediatised members of the empire only kept possession of their patrinonial estates and private property, the purishetion in the first and second instances, the feudal rights, and mining privileges, &c.: but the power of 🜉islation, essential to sovereignty, the supreme purisdiction, the right of declaring war and peace, of forming alliances, of regulating the police, and taxation, &c., devolved on the princes of the confederation, to whom these medianised princes became subject. The object of this confederation was to \*secure external and internal France and the members of the confeder-, ation were to be closely allied, and, if one of them was threatened with war, or attacked, all the other confederates were to take up arms at the call of the protector, without further consultation, to assist the party threatened or attacked. Although, by the act of confederation, Napoleon was called protector of the confederation of the

whom the rulers of the several states were to be subject. To deliberate on the mutual affairs of the confederates, a confederate diet was to be established at Frank-/ fort on the Maine, with two divisions the royal, in which the grand-dukes were likewise to have scats, and that of the princes. The prince-primate was to be general president of the diet, and particularly of the royal chamber; in that of the princes, the duke of Nassau was to preattached without his knowledge, the elect-side. At the death of every prince-prior arch-chancellor received the title of mate, his successor was to be appointed by the protector of the confederation of the Rhine. No member of the latter was to be allowed to enter the service of any state not included in the confederacy, or allied with the same, nor was any member to be allowed to cede his sovereignty in favor of any but a confederate. The disputes of the confederate princes were to be decided at the diets, and, for the sake of adjusting complaints against the members of the confederacy, two courts of justice were to be established. But neither these, nor the meeting of the confederacy, ever took place. Finally, Catholics and Protestants were to enjoy equal rights in all the confederated states. Thus, in the place of the German empire, which had existed nearly 1000 years, at least in name, a confederation was formed, which, transitory as it may seem in many respects, nevertheless brought about a total and lasting revolution in the political relations of the former German states of the empire and their subjects, and is erroneously judged, if it is considered as merely the offspring of foreign ambition, and not as the mevitable consequence of the internal dissolution of the ancient constitution of 'the empire. Sept. 25, 1806, the elector of Wurtzburg joined the confederacy as a grand-duke. Prussia, on the other hand, to limit the increase of the power of France, by the further extension of this confederacy, had formed the project of a similar union, under her protection, to be composed of the northern German princes. But an end was put to this project by the war of 1806—7; and, during this war, the elector of Saxony, after having separated from Prussia, and assumed the title of king, at the peace concluded between Saxony and France, at Posen Dec. 1, 1806) entered the confederacy. His example was followed (Dec. 15, 1800) by the five Saxon dukes; and, by the treaty signed at Warsaw, April 13, 1807, the two princes of Schwarzburg, the three dukes of the house of Anhalt, and many other smaller -

VOL. 111.

princes, were admitted into the confederacy. .. The kingdom of Westphalia, formed, out of the provinces conquered from Prussia and other states, and assigned to Jerome Bonaparte, was likewise added to the confederation of the Rhine, by the constitution, confirmed by the emperor of France, Nov. 15, 1807. Finally, the duke of Mecklenburg-Strelitz (Feb. 18, 1808), the duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerm (March 22, 1808), the duke of Oldenburg and prince of Lubeck (Oct. 14, 1808), were admitted as members; so that the confederacy extended over a space of 125,160 square miles, with 14,608,877 inhabituits; and the confederate forces were increased from the originally supulated number of 63,000 to 119,180. But the protector of the confederacy of the Rhine. who had established the league, for the maintenance of internal and external peace, thought himself authorized to make inroads on the security and independence of his confederates, and, by a decree of Dec. 10, 1810, by which the rivers Scheldt, Meuse, Rhmer Ems, Weser and Elbe were added to France, deprived the following princes of the confederacy of their political existence, and of the independence secured to them by the act of confederacy:-1, the duke of Oldenburg, on whose dukedom he seized, leaving him only the principality of Lübeck: 2, the duke of Ahremberg, of whose possessions a part were added to France, and the remainder to the grand-duchy of Berg; 3, the possessions of the prince of Salm-Salm and Salm-Kyrburg were likewise added to France. Of the grand-duchy of Berg, and the kingdom of Westphaha, considerable portions were likewise joined to France. The territories thus appropriated amounted to 11,278 square index, with 1,133,057 inhabitants; so that 114,140 square miles, and 13,475,826 inhabitants, remained to the confederacy. The year 1813 put an end to its existence. The present grand-dukes of Mecklenburg-Schwerm and Mecklenburg-Strehtz, the last, who, compelled by their situation, had joined the confederacy of the Rhine, were the first that renounced it, immediately on the alliance of Prussa with Russia against Rapoleon. They were soon followed by the kings of Bavaria and Werterhberg, besides several less powerful princes. Others he stated longer, prevented partly by the situation of theirs efficacy. But the holy Scripture does countries, partly by other considerations, not contain an express decision on this from making a free declaration. Among these were the king of Savony, as also the grand-duke of Frankfort, the president of

the confederacy. The former lost half of his country, the lutter, all. The king of Westphalia and the grand-duke of Berg (son of the ex-king of Holland) shared the same fate. For the same reason, by the resolutions arbitrarily passed at the congress of Vienna, the dominions of the prince of Isonburg and of the prince Von der Leyen, who, as princes of the confederacy of the Rhme, were sovereigns, were mediansed. The other members of the confederacy of the Rhine, with the exception of the duke of Ahremburg and the 'prince of Salm, have joined the German confederacy as sovereigns.

Confession. This term is sometimes applied to a profession of faith; for instance, the confession of Augsburg. (See Augsburg, and Reformation.) It sometimes also signifies a religious sect; as,the three Christian confessions—the Roman Catholic, the Lutheran and the Calvinistic, Confiteor (1 acknowledge) is the confession which the Catholic priests make before the altar, when beginning mass or public wor-

Confession, in law, is when a prisoner, after being arranghed, and hearing the indictment against him read, confesses the offence of which he is charged. Such confession is the most satisfactory ground of conviction.- In the German states, the confession of the pusoner, to be conclusive, must not only be made in open court, but must be accompanied by a disclosure, on his part, of the circumstances under which the crime was committed.—By the revised laws by New York, a prisoner, instead of being asked whether he is guilty or not guilty, is asked whether he will be tried by the jury.

Confession, Auricular, in the Roman church; the disclosure of sins to the priest at the confessional, with a view to obtain absolution from them. The father confissor inquires of the person confessing concerning the circumstances of the sins confessed, and proportions has admonition, and the seventy of the penance, which he enjoins, to the degree of the transgression. The person confessing is allowed to con-ceal no sin of consequence which he remembers to have committed, and the father confessor is bound to perpetual secrecy. The absolution granted there-. upon has, according to the doctrines of the Cathohe and Greek churches, sacramental point, and the custom of confession before taking the Lord's supper was not established in the oldest Christian congre-

gations. Whoever was guilty of great sins, made a public acknowledgment of them, and a profession of repentance before the assembled congregation. was usually committed to writing, and read by the peritents. Pope Leo the Great, in 450, altered this public confession into a secret one before the priest. fourth Lateran council (can. 21) ordains, "that every one of the faithful, of both sexes, on coming to years of discretion. shall, in private, faithfully confess all their sms, at least once a year, to their own pastor, and fulfil, to the best of their power, the penance enjoined them, receiving, reverently, at least at Easter, the sacrament of the eucharist, inless, by the advice of their pastor, for some reasonable cause, they judge it proper to abstain from it for a time; otherwise, they are to be excluded from the church while living, and, when they die, to be deprived of Christian burial." While the Catholic church thus requires from the penitent the avowal of his single crimes, the Lutheran church requires only a general acknowledgment, leaving it, however, at the option of its members, to reveal their particular sins to the confessor, and to relieve the guilty conscience by such an avowal; for which reason, the Protestant priests are bound, as well as the Catholic, to keep under the seal of secrecy whatever has been mausted to them in the confessional. (q. v.) The confession, in the Lutheran church, is sometimes special, when the pentents separately acknowledge their sms; sometimes general, when it is done by many, who are assembled for the purpose, and confess according to a certain Where the prest is well acformula. quainted with the different members of his congregation, the special confession seems to be most suitable, because it gives the confessor an opportunity of adapting his reproofs, exhortations and consolations to the wants of each individual, and thus , of producing a stronger impression. opportunity which the confession gives the priest of directing self-examination, of ronsing, warming, exhorting and consoling the pentent becomes a means of adding to the cilect of the public religious ser-But, at the same time, it affords a dangerous opportunity to the priest of abusing the confidence reposed in him, of which the history both of nations and individuals exhibits fearful examples. The practice of confession is grounded on the imperfection of human virtue. The Lutherans therefore retained his custom, although they knew that it was not ordained

by Christ, but was only a part of the and cient church discipline: they did not, however, maintain its absolute necessity. (See Pentence.) The title of confessors was anciently given to those who had endured torments in defence of the Christian religion. It was often used for martyrs, but was subsequently confined to those who, having been tortured, were set free. Saints are also called confessors. So are the priests, in the Roman Catholic church, who absolve sinners. (For an account of the intrigues of confessors in political affairs, see Grégoire, Histoire des Confessours des Empereurs, des Rois, &c.; Paris, 1824.)

Confession:) Confession:

Confessional (from confessionis, Lat.), in architecture; a cell in a Catholic church, wherein the confessor sits to hear confessions. The confessional, of which there are many in every Roman Catholic church and chapel, is a species of cell, built of joinery, with a boarded back next the wall, or against a pillar or a pier, divided into three niches or small cells. centre, which is for the reception of the priest, is closed half way up by a dwarfdoor, and has a seat within it. There is a small grated aperture in each of the partitions between him and the side-cells. which are for those who come to confess, and have no doors. The sight of the numerous confessionals in St. Peter's church at Rome, each with an inscription, setting forth in what language penitents can confess within, is very impressive.

COMPRESSIONS. (See Augustine, St., and

Rousseau.)

CONFIRMATION: a ceremony intended for the completion of baptism, and considered by some churches as a sacrament. The council of Trent settled several points concerning it (sess. vii, De Sacram.). administered by bishops. The ceremony consists in the imposition of hands on the head of the person to be confirmed, accompanied with the holy unction. No other priest can confirm. The meaning of this sacrament may be best learned from the Acts of the Apostles, (vin. 14-21; xx, 1-6). Paul (m Heb. vi. 1-5) speaks of the imposition of hands as a custom to be perpetually observed among Christians. firmation, however, is considered by the Catholics a useful but not a necessary sacrament. Baptism can be administered even by a heretic, but not confirmation. In the Greek church, and other Oriental sects, the sacrament of confirmation follows immediately after baptism, and is administered as in the Roman church.

therans and Calvinists of Europe, have retained the practice of confirmation. It is, tion of the obligations which others undertook for them at their baptism. In Germany, confirmation among Protestants is one of the most solemn acts, and takes place only after a certain course of instruc-"tion in the Christian faith. The Lord's supper is not taken by these three sects, until after confirmation.

Confectus (also Kon-Fu-Tse, and Kung-Fu-Dsu), a teacher of religion and morals, who, like Moses and Zoroaster, exercised an extensive influence on his own and succeeding times, and now, after thousands of years, is still venerated by his countrymen, and respected by other nations, lived about 550 years B. C. He was of royal descent, and held the rank of a mandarm at court, in his native land, in the Lingdom of Lu (at present Shang-Tong, a province of the Chinese empire, which was not till a later period formed into mesingle monarchy); but, as the king would not follow his advice, he resigned his dignity, went to the Rangdom of Sum, and became a teacher of morals. He led a quiet and temperate life, and was distinguished for his wisdom. He neither attempted to overthrow existing establishments, nor to gain dominion by decent over the minds of men; but only to disseminate precepts of virtue and wisdom. He taught in the cities and at royal courts. Many hearers assembled about him, and he became the founder of a numerous sect, which still exists in China, and has extended to Cochin-China. His religious opinions are very uncertain; it does not appear that he changed or purified the prevailing faith. It may be inferred, how-ever, with great probability, that he taught the immortality of the soul, and favored and propagated the existing belief in fate and soothsaying, myl in the worship of certain good spirits, who watch over the elements and the various parts of the earth. It is certain that he inculcated it as a duty on his disciples to revere their ancestors. We are better acquainted with that part of his doctrines which relates to common life, and countries general pre-cepts of practical builty. In the most impressive mander, he enjoined universal benevolence, justice, virtue and honesty, and the observance of all usages and customs which had been once unroduced; it being proper that they who live together should live in the same manner, and sympathize in each other's pains and pleas-

The Protestant Episcopal church, the Lu- ures. Sometimes he inculcates reverence of old age; sometimes he shows how the tendencies of children should be guided, with individuals of these sects, an assump-. and their rising passions corrected. Sometimes he speaks of the peaceful virtues of domestic life, and sometimes he exhorts monarchs to exercise justice and humanity. He praises the delights of friendship, and teaches the forgiveness of offences. As a lawgiver, he deserves less honor. It cannot be denied that he extended the limits of paternal authority too far; for he allowed parents even the right to sell their children. It was a sophism unworthy of his wisdom, to say, as children can sell themselves, no one should hesitate to give this right to the authors of their existence. Confucus erred especially in viewing legislation as nothing but a branch of morals, and was satisfied, therefore, with giving general precepts on this subject. Moreover, esteem for the early lawgivers of his people hindered him from making careful investigations for himself: he acquiesced rather in the decisions of those celebrated men of whom he called himself the disci-His conduct is worthy of praise, ple. masmuch as he encouraged marriage, and recommended agriculture: trade he did not positively denounce, but he was less favorable to it. Of the works averibed to him, the Shu-king, or Shan-Shu, is the most important; but it is doubtful whether all parts of it were written by him. In comparing Confucius, Mohammed and Zoroaster, Mohammed bears away the palm as the founder of a rehgion, Zoroastef as a lawgiver, and Confuems as a pioralist. (See the Works of Confucius, original text, with an English trans lation, by J. Marshmad, Scrampore, 1809, The first volume contains the Life 41.1.) of Confuerus. Doctor Willi, Schott has hkewise armslated the Works of the Chinese Sage and his Disciples, for the first time, from the original into German, with nojes (1st vol., Halle, 1826).—Of the successors of Confuents, Meng-Tseu (Men-cuts) is to be chiefly noticed, who lived about 10 years after Socrates, and died B. C. 314, aged 84. He arranged the books of the She-King and Shu-King, and wrote a collection of conversations on moral philosophy. He resembled Socrates, in founding and building up a pure system of moral philosophy. In 1824, Staniskus Juhen published in Paris, in the Latin language, the system of Meng-Tsen, with a commentary, translated from

the Chinese. CONGESTION (from the Latin congestion) the act of heaping; carrying together).

The different parts of the lauman body do . not always receive the same quantity of blood, but sometimes more, sometimes', less. Thus, for instance, during digestion, it flows towards the stomach and the liver; during violent or long-continued speaking. singing or running, it collects in the lungs and the heart; during close thinking, in the In general, the blood flows in greater quantities into any part in proportion to the action of that part; but, in a state of health, it flows off with as much rapidity as it collects. Sometimes, how-"ever, too much blood accumulates in an organ, and remains too long in it; and this injures the structure and the function of such an organ. This accumulation of blood arises from a diseased state of the system, and is called congestion. Congestion may be caused by whatever, in generalt accelerates the circulation of the blood, and causes it to tend to a particular part: thus, for instance, among the causes of congestion are the different periods of de-, velopement of the human body, each of which renders some particular organ unusually active; the crisis of disease; and, lastly, the accidental exertions of certain, organs. Under such circumstances, congestion is caused by an exerted state of the arteries in general, and of some particular ones especially. Secondly, if the othe hot season. In those mountains (lat. current of blood to one organ is effected, it accumulates in another. Hence colds caught through exposure of the feet, also the suppression of the secretions, &c., so often cause congestion. Thirdly, the vessels which bring back the blood—the veins —are sometimes in a condition unfit to answer their destination; as, for instance, if they are already too full, if then power to receive the blood and to propel it is lost or diminished, or if they are prevented from performing their function by external pressure, or by tumors. Hence congestions are divided into active and passive; those of the arteries, and those of the years. Where the blood accumulates, the part becomes red and hot, the pulse beats more violently, and the years expand; the part swells, and a feeling of sickness, pain, pressure &c., comes on. The functions of the part change; if the congestion is slight, they become more active. In higher degrees of congestion, and if it is continued for a long time, the functions are checked, weakened, and sometimes entirely destroyed. Now, as every organ has its peculiar function, it follows, that the symptoms of congestion, resting on these grounds, must be very different, according to the different organs in which it

takes place. During the congestion of blood in one organ, the other organs exhibit symptoms of want of blood, viz., coldness, paleness, diminution of size, and weakness. Congestion generally lasts but a short time; but, if not early cured, and its return, which would otherwise be frequent, prevented, it is only the beginning of other diseases. Sometimes it terminates in bleeding, which is a remedy for it: sometimes it increases into inflammation; sometimes it becomes a chronic disease; that is, the blood accumulates for a long time, and expands the veins; the expansion becomes permanent, and the original excitement is succeeded by a state of torpidity and weakness, which is called stagnatio, or infarctus.

· CONGLOWERATE. (See Sandstone.)

Covoo; a kingdom in Lower Guinea, under the sovereignty of the Portuguese; between lat. 2° 40 and 8° 25 S., and between lon. 12° 30' and 19°, 30' E.; bounded on the N. by Anziko, W. by the Atlantic, S. by Angola, and E. by a country very little known, and inhabited by sayages. The river Zaire (q. v.) forms the boundars of Congo in some parts, and From the empties into the Atlantic. mountains east of Congo a large number of rivers descend, which do not dry up in 7° 30' S.) has the lake Achelunda. The coast is unhealthy, on account of its low grounds and forests: the interior, however, has a temperate climate, and:according to the missionaries, is populous, well cultivated, and considered by the inhabitants as a terrestrial paradise. There are two seasons, the dry and the rainy: the latter, beginning in October and ending in April, is accompanied by rains, thunder i and tempests. All travellers agree in describing the soil as covered with an exuberant vegetation. Several kinds of grain. unknown to Europe, are cultivated near the rivers; among them is the luco or luno. which furnishes a fine white bread. The soil produces three crops of maize annually. Among the trees, the baobab is mentioned: it is of enormous size, and its fruit is cuten by the natives. The soil produces an immense variety of plants. fron and copper, peoplyry, pasper, marble, salt, crystal, gold and silver are found in the mountains. Congo, fire, the rest of Gumea, abounds in wild animals: the elephant, leopard, lion, boar, portupine, jackal, zebra, different kinds of antelopes, and a great variety of apes, are the principal. The rivers contain crocodiles, hippopotami and turtles. The coast swarms with fish.

The reptiles are numerous, and many of them venomous: among them are the gicantic boa, the chameleon and the flying " lizard or palm rat, which is worshipped by the natives. Ostriches, peacocks, parrots, &c., inhabit the deserts and forests. great number of noxious insects live likewise in this rich country, c. g., mosquitoes, the banzo (of which the sting is said to be mortal), formdable ants, the insoudi (which enter the trunks of elephants, and cause them to die with mad-, ness), &c. Bees are numerous. Almost all domestic animals, introduced by the Portuguese, thrive pretty well. Though this country abounds in all the productions of the tropics, there appears to be no commerce carried on, except that in slaves, of whom, vast numbers are annually carried to Brazil. The population is uncertain, because the missionaries seem to have exaggerated it, and other travellers have only visited a small part of the country. The natives of Congo are of a middle size; their color and features are less strongly marked than those of the other Negroes. They kill a number of slaves over the grave of then sovereigns, who are intended to serve him in heaven, and to give testimony of his life. They seem less intelligent than the other Negro tribes. This encumstance, together with their great indolence, is a great obstacle to then civilization. Polygamy exists among them, and, though adultery is rigorously punished, they will often sell their wives for a glass of brandy to a European. They worship feticlies, with which they cover themselves, and adore images, in which a similarity with the Egyptian physiognomy is said to have been discovered Munder is punished by death; almost all other crunes by slavery. The kingdom is divided into several provinces, of which there seem to be six principal ones -Bamba, Butta, Pango, S. Salvador, Sandi and Sonho. Chiefs who have the fittes of dukes, counts and marquises, rule under the Portuguese. In each province is a capital or banza. Banza Congo, which, by the Portuguese, is called S. Salvados, is the capital of the whole kingdom. Congo was discovered by the Portuguese, in 1487, under the command of Diego Cam, who ascended the ruer Zaire. Soon after, the Portuguese soft troops there, and obtained possession of the country, partly by force, and partly by curning. Their missionaries met with much success, and there are still many Catholics in the country, but many have returned to idolatry, which is

more conformable to their savage state.

The government is despotic. This kingdom has been important to the Portuguese, on account of the slaves which it afforded. Among slave-dealers, the Congo men are generally not considered so strong and powerful as slaves from some other parts of Africa.

Congo. Batta; a city of Congo (q. v.), 30 leagues N. E. of S. Salvador. It is celebrated for its slave-market.

Congregations, in the papel government; meetings or committees, consisting of cardinals, and officers of the pope, to administer the various departments, secular and spiritual, of the papal domaion. To these belong the inquisition (congregation of the holy office), the congregation for the explanation and execution of the decrees of the council of Trent (del concilio), the congregation de propaganda fide. (See Propaganda.) Thus there is also a infitary congregation, the president of which is likewise a prelate.—Congregation also signifies a society of several convents of the same rule, which, together, form an a organized corporation, hold chapters, and elect superiors. The province of an ecclesiastical order is also called a congregation.-Congregation is likewise used to signify an assembly met for the worship of God, and for religious instruction.

Cover extroval. Chertenes; such as maintain the independence of each congregation or society of Christians, as to the right of electing a pastor, and of governing the church.

Congregationalist; a member of a Congregational church. (See the preceding article)

Congress, in international politics; a meeting of the rulers or representatives of several states, with a view of adjusting disputes between different governments. The history of Europe may, in a certain respect, be divided into three periods. In the first, it was split up into a great numbe of small divisions, which were in a state of perpetual contest. In the second, these were consolidated into larger masses, which continued the former conflicts on a The third period is the larger scale. present, in which nations have begin to understand their interest more clearly, and seem to hold the difference of language and the natural divisions of mountains and rivers trifles, in comparison with he great interests of liberty and humanity. Europe is now divided into two great parties, who carry on a war of principles. the one may be called the party of legitimacy, feudalism, despotism, & c.; the other that of liberty and equal laws. Thus the

. opposing masses in Europe have become "tials among the plenipotentiaries, which, continually fewer and more comprehensive, and the nature of the contest more intellectual. Mr. Canning's remarks on this point, in his speech on the occasion . of sending troops to Lisbon to assist the liberal party, do him honor. Congresses began in the second period, and they bear the character of the times in which they have been held. Of late years, they have become much increased in dignity and unportance, having been employed, since the commencement of the third period, which we may date from the congress' at Vienna or the congress at Aix-la-Chapelle (q. v.), to adjust political interests on a much larger scale than they were originally. (See the last paragraph of this article.)

A congress is a simple means of determining, in a diplomatic way, the conflicting claims of beligerent powers, or of states whose interests interfere with each other, and thus of preparing or concluding peace, or preventing a aupture, and of mediating between the different interests of different nations. At the same time, it is very common for a congress to assume illegal power in respect to particular governments or nation», because a congress affords governments of the same way of thinking so much opportunity of concentrating then forces. The plempotentiaries of the dissentient, or of the inediating powers, assemble at an appointed place, commonly on neutral ground, and, partly by notes, partly by verbal communication, carry on their negotiations. It is necessary to distinguish the preliminary congress, in which the preliminaties are settled (such as the consent and the repre-,  $\cdot$  sentation of the different powers, the place and time of the meeting, the extent of the neutral ground, the security of ambassadors and public messengers, the ceremomal, and the method of transacting business), from the principal congress, which is to bring the atlair in question to a gecision. These prehumanics are commonly settled in the diplomatic way, by the mediating powers, and their the principal congress assembles. The plempotentiaries, when they meet, after mutual greetings, appoint, in a prehimitary conference, the day on which the congress is to be opened, and determine the manner in which business is to be transacted, the forms of negotiation, the order of precedence among the different powers (ni Europe, the alphabetical order has been followed since 1815; see Ceremonial), and the time of session. The congress opens

in case the negotiating parties have refer-red to the arbitration of a mediator, are given to him. The envoys of the contending powers then carry on their negotiations directly with each other, or by the intervention of a mediator, either in a common hall, or in their own residenceby turns, or, if there is a mediator, in his residence. These negotiations are contimed either by writing or by verbal communication, until the commissioners can agree upon a treaty, or until one of the powers dissolves the congress by recalling its minister.—The history of the congresses is a history of European politics. It appears that Henry IV and Sully, having concerved the project of forming a union of the European states, the members of which, being equal in power, were to de-cide their quarrels by appeal to a senate, first thought this manner of negotiating advisable. Before the thirty years' war, no formal congresses had been held in Europe. Those at Roschild in 1568, at Stettm in 1570, and that conveked at the request of the czar John IV, by the pope, at Kiwer Na-Horka, m 1581, and succeeding years; that at Stolbova in 1617, at Viasma in 1634, at Stundorf in 1635, and at Brómsebio in 1645, which were terminated by the treaties of peace, named from the places at which they were held, regarded merely the political relations of the northern states. The history of the European congresses for peace begins, therefore, with those at Münster and Osnabruck. The listory of congresses may be conveniently divided into three periods: 1. from the foundation of the new European system by the double congress, which was followed by the peace of Westphaha. until the peace of Utrecht (from 1648 to. 1713); 2. from the establishment of the influence of the paval and colonial power of the British by the peace of Utrecht, to the congress of Vienna (from 1713 to 1815); 3. from the (so called) restoration of the balance of power in Europe, and the establishing of the principles of legitimacy, and stability of the existing governments, by the congress of Vienna and the holy alliance, to the present day. In every congress since 1642, some of the most powerful governments have taken the lead of the rest, and have betermined, in a certain measure, the course of negotiation, by laying down general principles. Bignon has weighed against each other the interests of the people and of the cabinets, in his work Les Cabinets et les Peuples by the exchange and perusal of creden- depuis 1815, jusqu' à la Fin de 1822. We

will now speak of the more important the Netherlands, France and Denmark on congresses, according to the order of the three epochs which we have laid down.

A. From 1648 to 1713. 1. The congress at Münster and Osnabrück. It is remarkable that the pope (during the thirty years' war the only sovereign, among the princes of Europe, except the king of Spain, who refused to acknowledge the peace of cio Ginetti. The emperor and Spain did indeed send ambassadors to Cologne, who were prepared to negotiate with France and Sweden, under the mediation of the pope; but, on account of this very mediation, France refused to send commissioners to this congress, but, on the contrary, joined with Sweden in a common negotiation for peace, at Hamburg. The emperor, finally, in a preliminary treaty at Hamburg, or 1641, resolved to negotiate with both powers at Munster and Osnabruck. On account of the dispute between France and Sweden on the subject of rank, and to avoid collision between the Protestant envoys and the nuncio, those two cities were chosen, which France had offered, being only six leagues distant from each other, and it was decided that the two meetings should form but one congress. This great European council of peace was first opened in December, 1614. At Minster, every thing was carried on by the mediators, the nuncro of the pope, and the envoy of the republic of Venice; at O-nabruck, the negotiations were direct, and the Latin language was used. (See Westphalia, Peace of.) 2. The congress of the Pyrenees. France and Spain continued, until 1659, the war which the peace of Westphaha had ended in Germany. After a preliminary fleaty concluded at Paris, May 7, the isle of Pheasants, in the Bidassoa, on the frontiers of the two states, was chosen for a place of meeting; and cardinal Mazarm and the Spanish muister, don Luis de Haro, from Aug. 13 to Nov. 25, 1659, had 25 conferences under a tent, in which the former used the Italian and the latter the Spanish language. The peace of the Pyrences, concluded Nov. 7, secured to France her political superiority : in anticed the peace of Münster, and yielded Roussillon, Conflans, and some places in the Netherlands, to France, which restored the ban-ished prince of Condé to his honors and cstates. Lorraine was also restored to her duke. 3. The congress at Breda, by the mediation of Sweden, ended the war between Great Britam on the one side, and

the other, by the peace of Breda, July 31, 1667, which principally related to their colonies in the West Indies, and the toll upon the Sound. 4. The congress at Aix-la-Chapelle, under the mediation of the pope, ended the war between France and Spain (occasioned by the claim of Louis XIV to a part of the Spain-Westphaha) made the first propositions, ish Netherlands), by the peace of Aix-la-of peace, in 1636, at Cologne, by his num- Chapelle, May 2, 1638, according to the terms of which France retained the places which it had conquered in the Spanish Netherlands, but restored Franche-Comté , to Spain. 5. In the war between Louis XIV and the Netherlands, from 1672 to 1678, a congress was first opened at Cologne, in 1673, but was dissolved in the following year, because the imperial ambassador had arbitrarily served the elector of Cologne, and sent him from that enty to Vienna. The British ambassadors (among whom was the famous sir William Temple) and the papal envoy then carried on, as mediators, the negotiations for peace between France, Spam, the Netherlands. the German emperor, Sweden, Denmark. Brandenburg, and some small states, at the congress of Nameguen, from 1676 to the conclusion of the peace of Nimegnesis m 1978, which consisted of several scharate treaties of peace; between France and the Netherlands; between France and Spain: between France, Sweden and the German empite, in 4679, of which the peace with Brandenburg, at St. Germanen-Lave, and that with Denmark at Fontamebleau and Land, together with that at Anneguen, between Sweden and Hotland, were the immediate consequences Thu · French diplomacy, by dividing the alles, obtained the victory at this congress. and secured, for a long time, the political superiority of Louis XIV. 6. The taking of Strasburg, which happened during the peace in 1681, and the re-union system of Lopis, caused the great alliance of the Hague (of which William III was the soul) against the pretensions and usurpations of France. Sweden and Holland first united; then the emperor, Spain, and some German circles joined the league, to support the peace of Westphalia and of Nuneguen; and as the emperor was already engaged in a war against the Turks, recourse was had to negotiation rather than to arms. This was the object of the famous congress of Frankfort, in 1681, which was broken off by the French, in December, 1682, but was afterwards continued at Ratisbon, and ended by a truce of 20 years with France, in 1684 But in

vain did the European powers seek, by alliances with each other, and particularly by the great league of Augsburg (association), in 1686, effected by the stadtholder of Holland, William III, to put limits to the ambition of Louis, for, in September, 1688, the French armies invaded the countries on the Rhine. This, and the expulsion of the house of Stuart from the throne of England by William III, in November, 1688, was the cause of a war of nine years. 7. Designs on the Spanish succession induced Louis, though victoriarate treaties, and, not succeeding in this, he sought the mediation of Sweden; by means of which a congress was convened at Ryswick, a castle near the Hague, in May, 1697. The negonations were carried on (round a circular table, in the hall of conference, which prevented all dis-putes about precedency) on the principles of the peace of Westphalia and that of Nameguen. But the French, by separate treaties with the allies, obtained the direction of the negotiation, and their skilfuldiplomacy obliged the German empire to accept the conditions determined upon by France with Spain, Great Britain, and the Netherlands. The peace of Ryswick was signed by the naval powers Sept. 20, and by the emperor Oct. 30, 1697. To this period belong certain other congresses, in which the political relations of the northern powers towards Poland and the Porte were settled. 8. The most famous is that which took place at Ohya, a monustery near Dantzic, in May, 1660, where France mediated a peace between Sweden and Poland, and to which the German emperor, the elector of Brandenburg, the duke of Courland, and other inferior princes, sent ministers. The plempotentiaries of the Dutch republic, of Denniark and of Spain were not admitted. The peace of Ohya, May 3, 1660, confirmed the political superiority of Sweden in the North, secured to it the possession of Ei-'vonia, and established the sovereignty of At the same time, England, Prussa. Holland and France mediated the peace of Copenhagen, concluded May 27, 1660, • between Sweden and Denmark. The negotiations at Ohya were finally completed by the peace between Sweden and Russia, at Cardis, July 1, 1661. 9. Particular congresses were convened to settle certain disputes between Poland and Russia; at Radzyn in 1670, at Moscow in 1678, at Radzyn and Andrussov in 1684, which resulted in the definitive peace at Moscow, m 1686, by which the power of Poland,

which the treaty of Oliva had already? shaken, received a second blow. The boundaries between Russia and Poland remained, until 1772, such as they had been fixed by this peace. 10. The congress at Altona, in 1687, where the German emperor and the electors of Saxony and Brandenburg mediated in the disputes between Denmark and the house of Holstein-Gottorp, terminated, after Great Britain and the states-general had albeen called in as mediators, in the peace of Altona, in 1689, by which the duke of ous, to attempt to divide the allies by sep- "Holstein regained his territories with full sovereignty. 11. To this period belong, also, the conferences at Carlowitz in 1698, where a Turkish sultan first learnt to employ the forms of European diplomacy, accepting the mediation of Great Britain and Holland. In this congress, his first dragoman, Mayrocordato, exhibited a spe-cimen of the diplomatic talents of the Greek nation, setfling all questions of rank by a round table. In 1699, he coucluded with the German emperor, Poland, Venuce and Russia, at Carlowitz, the treaties of peace, or truces, by which bounds were first set to the power of the Porte. Venice was obliged to give up Candia and the islands of the Archipelago. It retamed, however, the Morea, the Ioman islands, and some places it Albania.

B From 1713 to 1814. 1. The war of the Spanish succession was ended by the congress at Utrecht, to which France, England, the states-general, Savoy, the emperor, Portugal, Prussia, the pope, Venice, Genoa, the electorates of Mentz, Cologne, Treves, the Palatmate, Saxony, and Bava-Ha, together with Hanover and Lorraine, sent their plenipotentiaries in January, 1712, after France and Great Britain, in the preliminaries settled Oct. 8, 1711, had drawn the outlines of the peace, and had thus already decided, to a certain degree, the new relations which were to exist between the states. At Urecht, also, Frenchdiplomacy succeeded in breaking the union of the powers interested, by a regulation that each of the allies should give in his demands separately. The dissensions between them increased when they saw that the negotiations of Great Britain were, for the most part, Parried on in secret, and immediately with the court of Versailles. The result was eight separate treates of peace, which France, Spain, England, Holland, Savoy and Portugal made with each other, between 1713 and 1715, leaving Austria and the empire to themselves. (See Ulrecht, Peace of.) Since that time, the British, from their naval and commer . icial power, have taken the lead unong the principal states, and the interest of England has determined the fate of the European system of a balance of power, as it is called. 2. The congress at Baden, in June, 1714, was a mere act of form to change the peace concluded at Rastadt by · Eugene and Villars, in the name of the emperor and of France, and which rested upon the peace of Utrecht, into a peace , of the empire (drawn up in Latin). 3. The congress at Antwerp was also a consequence of the peace of Utrecht. England there mediated between the emperor of Germany and the states-general, and concluded the barrier treaty of Nov. 15, 1715. 4. The congress at Cambray, in 1722, was held to settle the disputes between the emperor, Spam, Savoy and Parma, with regard to the execution of the peace of Utrecht and the condmons of the quadruple alliance, England and France being mediators. But Philip V of Spain, offended by the rejection of his daughter, April, 1725), recalled his minister from Cambray, and concluded a peace with Austria at Vienna, April 20, 1725, in which he became guarantee for the plagmatic The defensive alliance, soon sauction. after concluded between Austria and Spain, was followed by a counter-alliance between England, France, the United Provinces, Denmark, Swelen, Hesse-Cassel and Wolfenbuttel, formed at Herrnhausen. On the other hand, Russa, Prussia, and some German states, joined the alliance of Vienna. A general war appeared to be approaching, when Austria, by the temporary suspension of the company of Ostend, and Spain, by the treaty with England at the Pardo, opened the way for a reconciliation. 5. The congress at Soissons, in June, 1728, was convened to effect a similar settlement between Austria, France, England and Spain; but the French numster, cardinal Fleury, succeeded in dividing Spain and Austria, and France, Spain and England formed a treaty of annty and initual defence, at Seville, in 1729 (to which Holland acceded), in order to give law to Austria. The congress at Soissons was thus dissolved, and injured Austrea took up arms. But the guarantee of the pragmatic sanction, which Eyeland and Holland undertook, induced the emperor Charles VI, in 1731, to accept the conditions of the treaty of Seville. 6. The congress at Aix-la-Chapelle, in April, 1748, in which France, · Austria, England, Spain, Sardima, Holland, Modena and Genoa took part, ter-

minated the war of the Austrian succession by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, Oct. 18, 1748. 7. The seven years war between England and France was ended without a congress; but Austria, Saxony 'and Prussia concluded a peace at the congress of Hubertsburg, Feb. 15, 1763, the session having lasted from Dec. 1762. 8. The congress at Teschen, in March, 1779, decided the dispute with regard to the Bavarian succession, by the mediation of France and Russia between the contending powers, Austria and Prussia. The elector palatine, the elector of Saxony, and the duke of Deux-Ponts, sent their ministers, but not the elector of Bayana, whose hereditary succession was the subject of negotiation. (See Teschen, Peace of.) 9. Russia and Austria offered their mediation to France and England in the war of the American revolution. Vienna was proposed for the place of meeting; but France refused the mediation; and when the Russian and Austrian munisters wished to who had been betrothed to Louis XV (in stake part, as mediators, in the congress opened at Pans, in October, 1782, by the munisters of France, Spain, England, Holland and the U. States, the preliminaries of peace were settled without then knowledge, Nov. 30, 1782, and Jan. 20, 178k also the definitive neaty of Versailles and of Paris, Sept. 3, 1783, and that with Holland, May 20, 1784. 10. The disputes of Joseph II with the republic of Holland, relating to the opening of the Scheldt, and other subjects, in 1784, induced France to offer its mediation; and a congress was opened at Vew ailles, Dec. 8 of the same year, by 4hc French minister count Vergemes and the imperial and Dutch iministers. It ended with the treaty of Fontamebleau, Nov. 8, 1785, by which the barrier treaty of 1715, and the treaty of Vienna, in 1731, were annulled, the boundames of Flanders restored as they were m 1664, several strips of land yielded up to the emperor, and, as a compensation for his clamps, a sum of 10,000,000 florins, of which France contributed 4,500,000, to prevent the congress from being dissolved On the other hand, the Scheldt remained closed, and the emperor gave up the rest 11. When Leopold II was, of his claims on the point of suppressing, by force of arms, the insurrection of the Netherlands, in consequence of the convention of Reiebenbach, a congress was opened, in September, 1790, at the Hague, by the ambassadors of Austria, Priissia, Holland and England, to which the deputies of the Belgian provinces were also admitted. These powers concluded, Dec. 1 of this

year, the convention of the Hague, by which, however, the emperor was willing only to confirm to the Belgic provinces the old constitution, as it was at the time of the death of Maria Theresa. New disputes and commotions thence arose. Finally, Francis II, in March, 1793, restored the old constitution, as it had been under Charles VI, and swore, at Brussels, in 'April, 1794, to the joyeuse entrée; but it was too late, for Belgia was soon after conquered by the French. 12. In the history of the wars of the French revolution, the fruitless congress at Rastadt deserves mention. It was opened by the deputation of the empire, under the presidency of the directorial subdelegates of Mentz, baron Von Albini, in presence of the imperial plenipotentiary count Metternich, Dec. 9, 1797, and dissolved by him, April 7, 1799, by an imperial decree. The ancient dignity of the German empire was maintested on this occasion merely by a Vain formality, with which the insulting haughtness of the French ministers formed a striking contrast. deputation gave their notes in German, the French ambassadors in French. With r gard to the object of the meeting, the teputation resembled a person blindfolded, end empled, hand and foot; for the secret articles of the peace of Campo-Forand, and the conditions of the secret convention of Rastadt, Dec. 1, 1797, remained anknown to it. Thence arose disputes and mistrust, especially between Austria and Prussa; and while the deputation was groping in the dink, it stumbled over every obstacle, and laid itself open conanually to its adversaries, so that the subdelegate of Baden, among other reasons by which he attempted to exculpate himself for having given up the whole left bank of the Rhine, mentioned the anger of the French manisters when they heard that only a part of it was to be given to The French diplomatists at Ragtadt neglected the ancient forms of cour-'esy; the German frequently acted with The whole ousillaminity and timidity. termmated by a bloody crune, April 28, 1799, probably occasioned by the arbitrary measures of a man of a violent character, who wished for personal vengeance, and the blind rage of the subordinate officer whom he had charged to execute it. (See Rastadt.) The conditions of the cession of the left bank of the Rhine, and the compensation made to the princes who were thus injured, by secularizing the ecdesiastical possessions, having been already accepted by the deputation at

Rastadt, were, without a convocation of the empire, afterwards presented as articles of peace, in the peace of Luneville in . 1801., 13. The congress at Amiens, where Joseph Bonaparte and the marquis of Cornwallis negotiated for a definitive peace between France and England, from December, 1801, to March 27, 1802, Malta being the most difficult matter of dispute, and the Spanish and Dutch ministers taking part in the negotiations only where the interests of their respective powers came in question, was terminated by the treaty of Annens, concluded by the four plempotentiaries, March 27, 1802, to which the Porte acceded, May 13, 1892, bur which was dissolved by a declaration of war, on the part of England, March 18, 1803. 14. Napoleon commonly negotiated his treaties' with arms in his hands; he therefore needed no mediator. 'But when he was preparing to conquer Spain, and wished to secure his rear towards Germany and Poland, and therefore to form a closer alliance with Russia, and make again an attempt to riduce England to join in the general peace, the first European congress of monarchs was called together at Erfurt, in October, 1808. Napoleon arrived there September 27, and, a few hours afterwards, the emperor Alexander. They found there, already assembled, the kings of Savony, Bavaria and Würtemberg, Jerome, then king of Westphaha, the grand-duke Constantine, prince Wilham of Prussia, the dukes of Saxe-Weiz mar, Saxe-Gotha and Holstein-Oldenburg, with several other princes, together with the ministers of state of these courts, and the ministers from Prussia, Denmark, Würtzburg, the prince primate, Baden, and several others. The baron Von Vincent appeared in the name of the emperor of Austria, with a letter, in which he declared his friendly dispositions towards France. The negotiations related to a diminution of the commutations imposed by France on Prussia, and the admission. of the duke of Oldenburg into the confederation of the Rhine; but the principal subject of discussion was the peace with England, the relations between France and Austria, and the affairs of Turkey. The British government, by a circular letter of Oct. 12, declared its readiness to take into consideration the offers of peace made by the emperors of France and Austria, if Sweden and Spain were represented in the congress by their plenipotentiaries; but, as Napoleon would not grant this right to the Spanish nation, the negotiations were broken off in December.

432

The assembly at Erfort immediately separated, Oct. 14, after Napoleon thought he had secured peace with Austria, and had had several private interviews with the emperor Alexander, the purport of which is not precisely known. (See Schöll's Traités de Paix, vol. 9, p. 194. Bignon's History of French Diplomacy, recently published, and which has not as yet reached .us, probably contains much information on this, as well as many other points.) To this period belong, also, 15thly, the two fruitless congresses at Brunswick, in the course of the northern war. The first was dissolved in February, 1713, and the second in March, 1714. 16. The congress opened by the Holstein minister Gortz, buron Von Schlitz, in the name of Charles XII, with the plenipotentiaries of the ezar, upon the island of Aland, in But the peace there negotiated, upon conditions tolerably favorable to Sweden, was rendered invalid by the death of Charles XII, and the party spirit of the Swedish nobility, to which Gortz fell a victum.'s The Swedish government broke off the negotiations with Russia upon the island of Aland, and, by the mehation of France, concluded, at the congress of Stockholm, separate treatnes of peace with Hapover, Nov. 20, 1719, and, in 1720, with Prosin, Denmark, and, provisionally, with Poland. Finally, Sweden, by the mediation of France, was obliged to conclude peace, Sept. 10, 1721, at Nystadt (where the congress had assembled in May, 1721), upon terms, dictated by the ezar, which established the preponderance of Russia in the North. This was followed by the conclusion of the definitive treaty of peace with Saxony and Poland, in 1729 and 1732. 17. The war which broke out in 1741, between Sweden and Russia, was ended by the definitive treaty of peace concluded at Abo, Aug. 17, 1743, at the, congress held there by Russian and Swedish ministers, after Sweden had chosen, as the successor to the throne, the bishop of Lübeck, Adolphus Frederic, duke of Holstem-Gottorp, instead of the crownprince of Denmark. This was followed by the treaty of St. Petersburg, between Russia and Sweden, in 1745. While the mediation of foreign powers was refused by Russia, especially under the reign of Catharine II, in its treaties with Sweden, Poland and the Porte, it was employed in the disputes between Austria and the Porte. 18. The congress of Passarowitz, by the mediation of Great Britain and Holland, put an end to the war which had broken out in 1714 and 1716, between

the Porte and Austria and Venice, by the. peace of Passarowitz, July 21, 1718, by which the Morea was left in possession of the Porte, as a conquered province, without any mention of it being made in the 19. The Porte, in a war with treatv. Russia, in 1736, desired the mediation of Austria, Holland and Great Britain; but Russia refused the mediation of the naval powers, so that the congress at Niemiroff. in Poland, in June, 1737, consisted only of ministers from the Porte, Russia and Aus-But when Austria declared war against the Porte, France acted as media-The negotiations were broken off in October, but they were renewed and carried on, partly in Constantinople, partly in the camp of the grand vizier, by the French ambassador, M. De Villenenve, who had received secret instructions, on this subject, from the emperor Charles V1, and the empress Anna, of which, however, their ministers, count Von Sinzendorf and count Ostermann, who, on their side, were negotiating for a private peace with the Porte, knew nothing. Finally the Austrian general count Neipperg concluded a preliminary treaty, Sept. 1, 1739, in a very hasty manner, with the guarantee of France, by which Belgrade, though in a good state of defence, was surrendered to the Turks. Villeneuve now concluded with Austria and with Russin, Sept. 18, 1739, the definitive treaty of Belgrade, which was extremely advantageous for the Porte, and signed it as plempotentiary of the Russian empress, without the knowledge of field-marshal Münich, who had likewise received full power to make peace with the Porte. 20. In the war of Russa with the Porte, from 1768 to 1774, a congress was held by the Russian and Turkish manisters, in August, 1772, at Focsani, in Moldavia, where appeared, also, an Austrian and a Prussian minister; but Catharine would not recognise them as mediators, and they only learnt in secret, from the Turkish ambassador, the course of the negotiations. This congress, however, soon after separated. A second congress, also, assembled in October, 1772, at Bucharest, to which these two mmis-, ters were hkewise refused admittance, was dissolved, without having effected any thing, in March, 1773, probably through the influence of the French in the divan. Finally, the grand vizier, cut off from Adrianople, saw hynself obliged, without further negotiation, to accept peace upon the conditions of the Russian general, count Rumanzoff; and he signed it in the tent of the latter, at Kutschuk Kainardgi,

Russia and Austria and the Porte, in 1787 'U. States, 2d ed. vol. ii. p. 50 et seq.) and the following years, Catharine likewise refused all mediation; but Austria was obliged to accept it, and a congress met in June, 1790, at Reichenbach, where count Herzberg, in the name of Prussia, negotiated with Austria, and in which Poland, Great Britain and the states-gen-To avoid a war with eral took part. Prussia, Austria resolved to accept the ultimatum of the Prussian cabinet. Thus the convention of Reichenbach was made, July 27, according to which 'Austria concluded the peace of Sistova with the Porte. August 4, 1791, in which place a congress. had assembled in January of the same year, consisting of Austrian and Turkish ministers, together with those of the mediating powers-Great Britain, Prussia and Negotiations were afterwards carned on at St. Petersburg, by the mediating powers, for a peace between Russia and the Porte. The prelumnaries, however, were settled unmediately by the grand yizier and prince Repnin, at Galacz, Aug. 11, 1791, and the peace of Jassy was concluded Jan. 9, 1792, 22. In the war of Russia with the Porte, from 1806 to 1812, after Alexander's return from Erfurt, a congress was held at Jassy, m August, 1809, by Russian and Turkish ministers; but the demands of Russia induced the Porte to break off all negotiations. The Porte, at last, however, deternuned to ask for peace; and a congress assembled at Bucharest, in December, 1811, where, by the mediation of Great Britain and Sweden, although the French emperor, in his treaties with Austria and Prussia, in March, 1812, had stipulated for the integrity of the possessions of the Porte, peace was made, May 28, 1812, at the very mement when the armies of Napoleon were preparing to invade Russia. We ought also to mention in this period the only congress held by a European and an American power-the congress at After the war between England and the U. States, commencing in 1812, both powers sent ministers to Ghent. The English commissioners arrived in that city, in August, 1814; the American commssioners were already assembled there. This congress lasted until December, 1814, on the 24th of which month peace was concluded (see Ghent, Peace of), after the mediation, proposed by Russia, early in 1813, and accepted by the U. States, who had sent ministers to St. Petersburg for the purpose of treating with Great Britain, had been declined by the cabinet of St.

July 21, 1774. 21. In the war between James. (See Lyman's Diplomacy of the

C. Congresses from the year 1814. Since this year, as we have stated at the beginning of this article, congresses have been held by governments to take measures in opposition to the wishes of the nations, and the demands of the spirit of the age. Never, therefore, have monarche agreed so well, and acted so much in concert, as in this period, because they have felt it necessary to make common cause againstliberty; and never were so many congresses held in the same space of time. because constant instances of insubordination have required continual consultation, and the uneasy state of the monarchs' at home has made them fund of assembling in congresses. In this period, a most pernicious and unprecedented principle has been established, that every monarch has a right to interfere in the internal affairs of foreign nations; so that Alexander of Russia treated the concerns of Spain as if they were his own, feeling that every despot was interested in preventing the progress of liberal principles. This princuple naturally gave rise to the droit d'interrention armée. (See Intervention, armed.) This obnoxious principle was promulgated at the congress of Laybach.\* During the war of the allies against Napoleon, congresses were held at Prague, in 1813, and at Chatillon (q. v.), in February and March, 1814. In the subsequent peace. it was agreed that a general congress at. Vienna should complete the different stipulations then entered into. 1. Congress at Vienna (see Vienna, Congress at). 2. Congress at Paris. The principles and supulations of the congress at Vienna were con firmed in the conferences of the Austrian, British, Prussian and Russian ministers with the French minister, the duke De Richelieu, at Paris, the consequence of which was the conclusion of the treaty of Nov. 20, 1815, after the protocol of Nov. 3,

The frequency and abuse of congresses have been saturized by the keen and spirited Beranger. m his poem La Mort du Roi Christophe, ou Note presentée par la Noblesse d'Haiti aux Trois Grands Alles, Décembre, 1820, of which we cannot refrain from quoting the first verse

Christophe est mort, et du reyaum. La noblesse a recours à vous. Frantois, Alecandre, Guillaume, Prenez aussi putie de nous Ce n'est point pays limitrophe, Mais le mal fuit tont de prosees Vite, un congrès ' Deux, tros congres ' Quatre congres ('inq i ongrès ' dix congrès ' nuces, venger tedon Christophe.

Roi digne de tou: ves regrejs.

settled the territories of several German princes, with reference to the cessions made by France, and to the system of defence of the German confederation, and after the way in which the resolutions of the congress of Vienna were to be ratified, and the accession of other powers to it was to take place, had been agreed upon. Besides this chief treaty, several other measures were determined upon at this congress; for instance, the convention of Aug. 2, 1815, relating to the guard to be kept over Napoleon; the definitive treaty of Nov. 5, 1815, which placed the Ionian islands, as a confederacy, under the exclusive protection of Great Britain; the treaty of neutrality of Switzerland, Nov. 20, 1815, which was also signed by France; the treaty of alliance between the four powers of the same date, by which they pledged themselves to assist each other in maintaining the new political system, for which reason they were to occupy France, for some years, with an army of 150,000 men. After the conclusion of the congress at Paris, 12 more particular treaties between different powers were concluded in 1816, 1817 and 1818, concerning partly the new settlement of the territorial relations, partly the payments which France was obliged to make, the restoration of Parma to the Spanish infanta, duchess of Lucea, and the abolition of the slave-trade. 3. For "the completion of the work of the monarchs, it was still necessary to provide for a full reconculation with France, by the withdrawal of the army, composed of English, Austrian, Russian, Prussian, and other German troops. It was determined upon at the congress of Aix-ia-Chapelle (q. v.), in October and November, 1818, chiefly by the mediation of Wellington. after France had completed the payment of certain sums, to which she had obliged herself. The most important consequence of this congress was the accession of the French sovereign to the alliance of the four great powers. The five powers then published, at Arx-la-Chapelle, the famous declaration of Nov. 15, 1820, which, in the spirit of the holy alliance (q. v.), fronounced the principles that were to regulate, in future, the politics of Lurope, the aim of which was to be a lasting peace. The work of Stourden to Russian civil officer; see flourdza), Memoire sur l'État actuel de l'Allemagne, published during the congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, excited the suspicions of the monarchs against the liberal spirit in Germany, which they had themselves inflamed by different kinds

issued by the same plenipotentiaries, had of promises and excitements of the national feeling, when they wished to avail them: selves of its aid for the purpose of subduing Napoleon, but which they now dreaded in the same degree, as they were unwilling to fulfil their promises, and the just demands of the nations and the age. Unfortunately, the rash acts of two German youths (one of them, the celebrated Sand, killed Kotzebue; the other, Löhning, attempted to kill a president of the government of Nassau) afforded the German governments the occasion which they desired for the enforcement of illiberal meas-These were determined upon at the congress of Carlsbad (q. v.), which was assembled, partly for this purpose, partly for supplying some deficiences in the acts of the congress of Vienna, relative to the internal organization of Germany. 5. Boon after this congress, another, composed of munisters, assembled at Vienna, Nov. 25. 1819, where Metternich presided. doings of this congress had reference entirely to the organization of the German confederation, and the suppression of the liberal spirit in Germany. Their final act The three folwas signed May 45, 1820. lowing congresses, at Troppau, Laybach and Verona, concerned the affairs of Lurope in general. 6. The congress at Proppan (q. v.) lasted from October to December, 1720. The congress was held on account of the revolutions in Spain and Portugal, and was transferred to Laybach, when the revolution of Naples broke out. 7. The right of interfering in the internal affairs of other nations, agreed upon at Troppan, was, m 1821, diplomatically admitted into the international code of the European continental powers at the congress of Laybach. The consequences of the congress at Laybach, from whence the albed powers issued a proclamation against Naples, were the occupation of Naples. Sicily and Piedmont, by Austrian armies; the abolition of the Spanish constitution in these countries, and the restoration of the old order of things. (See Naples. Sicily and Piedmont, Revolutions of.) 1 Austra had not succeeded, a Russian army of 80,000 men, which had already begun to march towards Hungary, would \* have entered Italy. After the Austrians had acquired their object in Naples and Picdment, the two emperors concluded the congress of Laybach by a proclamation, signed by the ministers of Austria, Prussia and Russia, May 12, 1821, in which they declared that the justice and disinterestedness, which had guided the councils of the monarchs, would always

be the rule of their politics. This congress is also famous for a speech of the emperor of Austria to the professors of a public seminary at Laybach, in which he directed them to be careful not to teach their pupils too much; he did not want learned or scientific men, but obedient subjects. 8. The two emperors had determined, at Laybach, to hold a new congress, in 1822, at Florence. Verona was afterwards substituted for Florence, and a congress held there from Oct. to Dec., 1822, on account of Spain and Portugal, and the political France against Spain, in 1823, was a consequence of this congress, which was remarkable for the spirit displayed by the duke of Wellington-the same which prevailed in the English ministry from the appointment of Canning to the secretariship of foreign affairs (Sept. 16, 1822). The duke, the English minister at Verona, opposed the undertaking any measure against the Spaniards, as long as they left their king unmolested, and did not labor to extend their constitution beyond their borders. As respected Tankey and Greece also, England wished for no interference of the other powers, but to leave them to themselves.—In America, only one international congress has been held, and that of little importance. It was called the congress of Panama. The project of a general union of the new Spanish American republics was early-conceived by different leaders of the revolution. The first attempt to carry this plan into execution was made by Bohvar, in 1933. As president of the republic of Colombia, he invited the governments of Mexico, Peru. Chile and Buenos Ayres, to send delegates to the isthmus of Panama, or wherever they should think proper, to constitute a congress with full powers to treat of matters of general interest to the ropublics. Mexico and Peru immediately acceded to the proposal, but Buenos Ayres and Chile showed no inclination to take part in the congress. In Dec., 1821, Bolivar sent a circular to each of the governments, recapitulating what had already been done, and proposing that the meeting should take place. Accordingly, in June, 1826, the delegates from Colombia, Mexico, Peru and Guatemala assembled at Panama; Chile and Buenos Ayres still holding back, it is said, in consequence of suspicions of an ambitious scheme of Bolivar to incorporate the four S. American republies into an empire, of which he was to occupy the throne. The declaration of the U. States of N. America, in 1825,

that they would permit no ulterior colonization in any part of the continent by European powers; that they should consider any attempt on the part of those powers to extend the system of national interference to any portion of this hemisphere dangerous to their peace and safety; and that any interposition, by any European power, for the purpose of controlling, in any manner, the governments, of America which had established their independence, would be considered as the manufestation of an unfriendly disposition state of Italy and Greece. The war of towards the U. States, led the South American states to invite this republic to join in the general confederation. Ministers to the congress were, in fact, appointed; but, before their arrival, the congress had adjourned (after concluding a treaty of friendship and perpetual confederation) to the succeeding February. The place appointed for the new session, which has never taken place, was the village of Tacubaya, near Mexico. The three great points held out by the originators of this plan were, the independence, peace and security of the Spanish American republics. The congress was intended to form a permanent council, to serve as a bond of union against common dangers, to interpret the treaties . between the states, and mediate in all dispages; it was further an object, particularly with the U. States, to setue, through this body, disputed principles of international law; to abolish usages of war inconsistent with the spirit of the age, and to imbody the principles of American republicanism in an imposing form, in opposition to the doctrines of the European alhance of kings.

CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA. The national legislature of the U. States of America is designated, in the constitution of the general government, by this title. It consists of a senate and a house of representatives, each constituting a distinct and independent branch. The house of representatives is composed of members chosen every second year, by the people of the several states; and the voters or electors are required to have the same qualifications as are requisite for choosing the members of the most numerous branch of the state legislature of the state in which they vote. \*The representatives are apportioned among the several states according to their respective population; and, in estimating the population, there-fifths of the slaves are added to the while number of free persons. A census of the population is taken once in every ten years, and an apportionment is then made of the representatives for each state. The representa436

tives are then elected in each state, either in districts, or by a general ticket, as the state legislature directs. There cannot be more than I representative for every 30,000 persons. The present apportionment is 1 representative for every 40,000 persons. Each state, however small may be its population, is entitled to at least I representative. No person can be a representative who shall not have attained the age of 25 years, and have been 7 years a citizen of the U. States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that state in which he shall be chosen. other qualifications are required. When vacancies happen in the representation of any state, by death, resignation, or otherwise, new writs of election are issued by the executive thereof to fill the vacancy. The house of representatives chooses its own speaker and other officers, and possesses the sole power of impeachment. Each representative has a single vote,— The senate of the United States is com-· posed of 2 senators from each state; and, there being 24 states, the senate now consists of 48 members. The senators of each state are chosen by the legislature of the state for six years, and each Senator has one vote. They are divided into three classes, so that one third thereof is, or may be, changed by a new election every second year. When vacancies happen, they are supplied by the state legislature, if in session; if not, the state executive makes a temporary appointment until the legislature meets. No person can be a senator who is not 30 years of age, and he s not been 9 years a citizen of the U. States, and is not, when elected, an inhabitant of the state for which he is chosen. The vicepresident is, ex officio, president of the senate; but he has no vote unless they be equally divided. The senate chooses all its other officers, and a president, protempore, in the absence of the vice-president, or when he exercises the other of president of the U. States. The senate has the sole power of trying all impeachments; and, when sitting for this purpose, the senators take an oath or affirmation. It the president of the U. States should be impeached, the chief-justice is to preside. A conviction on unpeachment cannot be without the concurrence of two thirds " of the members present. The judgment extends 'only to a removal from office and future disqualification for office. But the party is, nevertheless, liable to punishment on indictment, by the common trial and course of law .- The times, places and manner of holding elections

for senators and representatives, are appointed by the state legislatures; but the congress may, by law, fix and alter the time and manner of holding such elections. Each of the two houses, viz; the senate and representatives, is the judge of the elections, returns and qualifications of its own members. Each house deternames the rules of its own proceedings, and has power to punish its members for disorderly conduct, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, to expel a member. A nanjority of each house constitutes a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and has power to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner as it may provide. Each house is required to keep a journal of its proceedings, and, from time to time, to publish the same, excepting such parts as, in its judgment, may require secreey. In point of fact, they are published every day or two, during the session, and collected in volumes at the end thereof. The yeas and nave of the members of each house, on any question, are required, at the desire of one fifth of those present, to be entered on the journal. The congress is required to assemble at least once every war; and such meeting if on the first Minelay of Perenber annually, miless a different day is provided by law. The president of the U. States has authority to convene extra sessions. Nother house, during the session of congress, can, without the consent of the other, adjourn more than 3 days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting. In case of disagreement between the two houses, as to the time of adjournment, the predear of the U. States may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper. The senators and representatives are entitled to receive a compensation, provided by law, for their services, from the treasury of the U. States. They are also privideged from arrests, except in cases of treason, felony, or breaches of the peace, during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going to and returning from the same. This does not mean merely their daily attendance; but, also, in going from or returning to their respective homes, in the several states. They have liberty of speech, and are not lable table questioned, in any other place, for any speech or debate in either house. No senator or representative can be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the U. States, which is created, or its emoluments increased, during the

## CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES.

time for which he is elected; and no person, holding an office under the U. States, can be a member of either house during his continuance in office. It has been already stated, that each house determines the rules of its own proceedings; and, in point of fact, each house now has a large collection of rules, which are printed for the use of the members, and for the public at large. In a general sense, the rules and practice of the British house of commons form the basis of their proceedings, modified from time to time, as each house deems fit. The rules are too numerous to admit of any useful summary in this There are, however, certain constitutional provisions, as to the proceedings of the two houses, which deserve to be mentioned. All bills for raising revenue must originate in the house of representatives; but the senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other Every bill which has passed the senate and house of representatives, before it can become a law, must be pre-sented to the president of the U. States. If he approve, he signs it; if not, he returns it to the house in which it originated, with his objections, and these objections are entered at large on their journals, and they then proceed to reconsider. If, upon reconsideration, two thirds of such shouse agree to pass the bill, it is sent, with the objections, to the other house, by which it is also to be reconsidered; and, if approved by two thirds of that house also, it becomes a law. But in all such cases, the votes of both houses are determined by yeas and nays, and the names entered on the journals. No instance has, as yet, occurred, in which any bill, returned by the president with objections, has ever become a law by a vote of two thirds of each house. It my bill is not returned by the president within 10 days (Sundays excepted) after it is presented to him, it becomes a law, in the same way as if he had signed it, unless congress, by their adjournment, prevent its return. order, resolution or vote, to which the concurrence of both houses is necessary, · must, in like manner, be presented to the president, and similar proceedings are to be had thereon. The legislative powers belonging to congress will now be stated, in the words of the constitution, itself, since different Aiodes of interpretation of the same language have, at different times, been insisted on by different parties in the U. States. Congress, then, by the constitution, has power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts and excises, to pay the

debts, and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the U. States ? but all duties, imposts and excises shall be uniform throughout the U. States:-to borrow money on the credit of the U. States:to regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several states, and with the Indian tribes:-to ostablish a uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcy throughout the U. States:-to coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coins, and to fix the standard of weights and measures:—to provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current com of the U. States:-to establish post-offices and post-roads:---to promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries :-- to constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court:-to define and punish piracies and feloues committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations:--to declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captue - oneland or water:-to raise and support armes; but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years:—to provide and maintain a navy:-to make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces:-to provide for calling forth the multia to execute the laws of the union, suppress insurrections and repel invasions: -to provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the U. States, reserving to the states, respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by congress:—to exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district, not exceeding 10 miles square, as may by cosion of particular states, and the acceptance of congress, become the seat of the government of the U. States; and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the state in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings :-- and "to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into effect the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this constitution in the government of the U. States, or in any department or office thereof."—Congress has also power to organize the supreme court, and to ordain

and establish, from time to time, inferior, of all receipts and expenditures of all pubcourts. In some cases, the original jurisdiction of the supreme court is expressly. given in the constitution; but its appellate jurisdiction is under the regulation of congress. Congress has, in other cases, an unlimited authority, as to the jurisdiction which shall be vested in other inferior courts, to which the judicial power given by the constitution extends. Congress has also power to declare the punishment of treason; but no attainder works any corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except for the life of the person attainted. crime of treason is expressly defined, by the constitution, to consist in levying war against the U. States, or in adhering to their enemics, giving them aid and comfort. Congress has also power to pre-scribe, by general laws, the manner in which the public acts, records and judicial proceedings of the states shall be proved, and the effect thereof, the constitution declaring that full faith and credit shall be given in each state to them. Congress has also power to dispose of, and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the U. States; and also to admit new states into the union; and also to propose. by a majority of two thirds of both houses, amendments to the constitution; or, on the application of the legislatures of two thirds of the several states, to call a convention for proposing amendments. But such amendments, to be binding, must be fatified by the legislatures of three fourths of the states, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode may be proposed by congress. But no state, without its consent, can be deprived of its equal suffrage in the senate. There are also certain restrictions upon the powers of congress; the most material of which are, that the privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless, in cases of rebellion or invasion, the public safety require it. No bill of attainder, or ex post facto law, shall be passed. No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration before taken. No tax or duty shall be laid onerficles exported from any state. No preference shall be given, by any regulation of commerce or revenue, to the ports of one state over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to or from one state be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another. No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account

lic money shall be published from time to time. No title of notality shall be granted by the U. States; and no person holding any office of profit or trust under them shall, without the consent of congress, accept of any present, emolument, office or title of any kind whatever from any king, prince, or foreign state. These restrictions are found in the original constitution. Certain other restrictions and rights are secured by amendments made soon after the constitution was adopted. Among the most material are these:-- Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof, or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press, or the right of the people penerably to assemble and pention the government for a redress of gravaness. The right also is secured to the people to bear arms, to be free from having soldiers quartered upon them in time of peace, or in war in any other manner than prescribed by law :- to be seeme in their persons, houses, papers and effects against unreasonable searches and seizures, and to be hable to starch and seizure only upon warrants upon probable cause supported by oath or afhirmation; to answer for capnal or otherwise infamous crimes only upon a presentment or indictment of a giand pary :-- to be exempted from being twice put in property of life or limb for the same offence; not to be compelled, in any criminal case, to be witness against themselves; nor to be deprived of life, lib city or property, without due process of law, nor to have private property taken for public use, without just compensation. Le criminal prosecutions, too, the accused choys the rigid to a speedy and public trial by an impartial pury of the state or district wherein the crane shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law; and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor ; and to have the assistance of coursel tor his defence. In suits at common law, where the value in controversy exceeds \$20, the right of a trial by jury is preserved. And no fact tried by a jury is to be otherwise reexamined in any court of the U. States, than according to the rules of the common law. Excessive bail is not to be required, nor excessive fines apposed, nor cruel or unusual punishments inflicted. The enumeration in the constitution of certain rights is not to

## CONCRESS OF THE UNITED STATES CONOREVE

be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people. And the powers not delegated to the U. States by the constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people. (For other provisions of the constitution, see the titles Constitution of the United States, Courts of the United States, President of the United States, &c. &c.\*)

Congress Spring; a medicinal spring at Saratoga, in the state of New-York. Its water is purgative; its specific gravity, compared with pure water, is as 1012 to 1000; the taste very salme, brisk and pungent. Several chemists have given analyses of the water of this fountain; but in their results exist some discrepancies. (See Manual of Materia Medica, by Edwards and Vavasseur, Paris; translated 1829, Philad.) Doctor Steel classes the Saratoga spring among the acidulous saline chalybeate. According to him, one gallon, just taken from the spring, contains the following ingredients, viz.:—

Muriate of soda, 227.3	218
Hydriodate of soda, 3	6
Carbonate of soda, 19.21	6.
Carbonate of lune, 92.4	"
Carbonate of magnesia 23.1	"
Oxide of iron, 5.39	٠.
Silica and alumnne (probably), 0.6	46
Carbonic acid gas, 316 cubic me	hes
Atmospheric an, 4 "	"

Doctor Steel observes, that iodine may exist in a numeral water, in the state of iodic or hydriodic acid, combined with either of the alkalies, potassa or soda, forming the iodate or hydriodate of the alkali with which they are united. The following table contains the ingredients of the water of Congress spring, the public well at Ballston, and the Albany water, given by Mr. Meade:—

## Congress Spring.

t mgribb i pringi	
Muriate of soda, 511	gr
Carbonate of lime, 134	*
Magnesia,	"
Muriate of huse	•6
Muriate of magnesia, 24	"
Oxide of iron,	<6
Total	

Carbonic acid gas, . . 33 cubic inches.

It will not be uninteresting to our readers if we add here a statement of the expenses of congress for the session of 1329—30. The expense of this, session is set down, in the estimate of the treasury department, at \$665,050. The session is estimated to last 175 days, or nearly 6 months; so that the pay of each member will amount to \$1400, or \$375,300 for the whole number of members and delegates, besides the round sum of \$120,000 for

Public Well, Ballston.	
Muriate of soda, 21	gra.
Carbonate of lime, 4	. "
Carbonate of magnesia, 5	"
Muriate of lime,	44
Munate of inagnesia,	- 66
Oxide of iron,	u
Total,	"
Carbonic acid gas, 304 cubic inc	ches.
Albany Water.	•
Muriate of soda	•
Muriate of soda, 59 Carbonate of soda, 5	grs.
Muriate of soda, 59 Carbonate of soda,	grs.
Muriate of soda, 59 Carbonate of soda, 5 Carbonate of lime, 4 Carbonate of magnesia	grs.
Muriate of soda, 59 Carbonate of soda, 5 Carbonate of lime, 4 Carbonate of magnesia, 1 Carbonate of iron, 1	grs. " " "
Muriate of soda, 59 Carbonate of soda, 5 Carbonate of lime, 4 Carbonate of magnesia	grs. " " "
Muriate of soda, 59 Carbonate of soda, 5 Carbonate of lime, 4 Carbonate of magnesia, 1 Carbonate of iron, 1	grs. " " "

Congreve, William; a celebrated English dramatist, descended from an ancient English family, in the county of Stafford; born in 1670. His father held a com-mand in the army. Young Congreve was educated in Ireland, at the free school of Kilkenny, to the neighborhood of which his father had been led in the course of ser-From Kilkenny he removed to Trunty college, Dublin, and thence to the Middle Temple, London, to prepare himself for the legal profession. Like many men who are placed in a similar situation, he soon deserted the law, and abandoned himself to the pursuits of polite literature. At a very early age, he wrote a novel, entated the *Incognita*, which is sprightly, infricate, and not natural. This was followed, at the age of 21, by his comedy of the Old Buchelor, pronounced by Dryden the greatest first play that he had ever beheld. Its success acquired for the author the patronage of lord Halifax, who immediately made him a commissioner for licensing backney-coaches; soon after gave hun a place in the pipe office; and finally conferred on him a very lucrative place in the customs. His next play, the Double Dealer, was not very successful in representation; but his third, the comedy of Love for Love, proved extremely popular. Not content with his fame in comedy, he now wessayed tragedy; and, in 1697, produced his Mourning Bride, the reception of which was extremely favorable. The composition of feur such plays,

traveling expenses. The stationary, fiel, printing, &c., for the senate, are estimated at \$35,000, and for the house of representatives, \$100,000. It is worth while to compare these expenses with those of the chambers of France and the two houses in England.

before he had attained the age of 28, is a remarkable proof of early genius in a line of composition demanding great observation and experience. He shon after closed his dramatic career, with the Way of the World, considered, by many critics, as the most perfect of his comedies; but which was, notwithstanding, received so coldly, that he resentfully determined to relinquish a species of writing in which, upon the , whole, he had been eminently successful. A masque, entitled the Judgment of Paris, and Semele, an opera, the latter of which was never represented, close the list of his labors for the stage. He, however, continued to write occusional verses on public subjects; and, in 1710, published a collection of his plays and poems, which he dedicated to his early patron, lord Hahfax, to whose person and party he remained attached in all fortunes. The remainder of the life of Congreve was spent in polished intercourse and literary leisure: and annust the fierce party contention which divided almost all the other wits of the day, he pursued a digmified neutrality, and was praised and complimented on both sides. Steele dedicated to him lffs Miscellames, and Pope his translation of the Had. On the return of his friends to power, he received the additional smecture of secretary to the island of Jamaica; and, thus rendered affluent, seemed desirous of dropping the character of a man of letters altogether. When Voltane, in a visit, alluded to his writings, he affected to regard them as trifles beneath him, and inuted that he only expected to be visited as a gentleman. Voltaire replied, that, had he been merely a gentleman, he should never have been desnous of seeing him. His latter years were clouded with sickness and infirmity, and he died in January, 1728-9, in his 60th year, in London. Congreve stands high on the list or English writers of comedy, for which distinction he is indebted less to a lively and humorous delineation of painral character, than to a perpetual reciprocation of within his dialogue, united to originality of plot, and to new combinations of factitions manners. He drew little from common life; and if his portraits 🚅 Tharpers and coquettes—men without principle, and women without deleacy—are just portraitures of the fine gentlemen and ladies of the day, the reign of Charles II must have operated most dreadfully on the national character. His Love for Love still occasionally appears; but none of the other pieces can be sufficiently pruned of their licentiousness for modern represen-

tation. The Mourning Brate is well constructed; but the florid elevation of the language is in the highest degree unnatural. It has, however, some fine poetic passages. The poetry of Congreve is below mediocrity, with the exception of a few songs and short effusions of gaiety or satire. Congreve, sir William, bart.; inventor of the rockets called by his name; born in the county of Middlesex, England, in 1772; cooperated actively in the improvements introduced into the British army by the duke of York; was a member of parliament, general of artillery, inspector of the royal laboratory,  $\Delta c$ . In 1816—17, he accompanied the grand prince Nicholas, now emperor of Russia, on his tour through England In 1824; a company was formed for lighting the principal cities of Europe with gas, of which Congreve was at the head. He wrote an Elementary Treatise on the Mounting of Naval Ordnance (London, 1812), and a Description of the Hydro-Pheumatic Lock (London, 1815). He died at Toulouse, in France, May 16, 1828. The Congreve rockets, first used in the attack of Boulogne, 1506, are of various dimensions, and are differently armed as they are intercled for the field or for bombardment, Those of the first sort earry shells or case-shot; the others are armed with a very combustible material, and are called carcass rockets. Then form is cylindrical, and they are connosed of strong metallic cases. The composed of strong metallic cases. suchs employed for regulating their flight are of different lengths, according to the size of the rocket. The carcuss rockets are arpled with strong, non, conteal heads. pressed with holes, and containing a substance as hard and solid as iron itself, which, when once inflamed, is mexturgui-hable, and scatters its burning particles in every direction. When this substance is consumed, the ball explodes like a grenade. The rocket is projected horizontally, and whizzes loudly as it thes through the air. The ammunition is divided into three classes—heavy, medium and light; the heavy including all above 42 pounds, the medium, those from 42 to 24 pounds, and the light from 18 to 6 pounds inclusive. The English have used them in the field at Leipsic, at the passage of the Adour, &c., and for bombardment at the siege of Copenhagen, &c. They were at first considered a very important invention, but experience has shown that they are made to deviate from their direction by the wind and other causes, and that they sometimes recoil upon their employcrs. In the field, they are much less efficient than the common artillery, and, in sieges, do less injury than red-hot shot and bombs. Their composition is not so entirely a secret as is commonly supposed, since they have been imitated by the Austrian, Saxon and other artillerists, and have even received some improvements from the first named.

CONIC SECTIONS. (See Cone.)

Conjugation. (See Verb, Grammar, Language.)

Conjunction, in astronomy. (See As-

' pect.)

CONNANICUT, or CANONICUT; an island belonging to the state of Rhode Island, in Narragainset bay, on the west side of the island of Rhode island; eight miles long, about one in average breadth. It is a beautiful island, of a fertile soil, producing good crops of grass and grain. It contains the town of Jamestown. On the south end, at a place called Beaver Tail; there is a light-house.

Connatcher; one of the four provinces of Ireland; bounded N. by the Atlantic ocean; E. by the counties of Fermanagh, Cavan, Longford, Westmeath and King's county; S. by the county of Clare and the sea; and W. by the sea. It contains 5 counties, v.z., Galway, Leitimi, Mayo, Roscommon and Shgo, which include 256 parishes, 4108 square fulles, 95,821 houses, 4 archbishopric and 5 bishopries.

Connecticut; one of the U. States; bounded N. by Massachusetts, E. by Rhode Island, S. by Long Island sound, and W. by New York; Ion. 71° 20' to 73° 15' W.; lat. 41° to 42° 2 N.; 58 miles long, and about 53 m average breadth; square unles, 1823: population, in 1756, 130,611; m 1774, 197,365; m 1682, 209,150; m 1790, 237,946; in 1800, 251,002; in 1810, 261,942; in 1820, 275,248; white males, 130,807; white females, 136,371; free colored persons, 7870; slaves; 97; persons engaged in agriculture, 50,518; in manufactures, 17,541; in commerce, 3581; inditia, in 1821, 22,100.\* - Hartford and New Haven are the seats of the state government. The legislature holds its sessions alternately in the two places. There are five meorporated cities in Connecticut—Hartford, New Haven, Middletown, New London and Norwich; and three borough-Brudgeport, Stomngton and Guilford. There are colleges at New Haven and

Hartford; and at the latter place, also, an asylum for the education of the deaf and dumb. The state has a fund, which, in 1821, amounted to \$1,858,094, the interest of which is appropriated to the support of schools. In no part of the world are the common and useful branches of education more generally understood. The inhabitants are distinguished for their habits of industry and sobriety. The present constitution was framed in 1818. The legislature, styled the general assembly, is com-posed of a senate of 12 members, and a house of representatives, 80 towns sendmg each 2 representatives: the other towns, founded since the charter of Charles II, in 1662, send 1 each. governor, hentenant-governor, senators, and representatives, are all chosen annually in April. The general assembly has one stated session in each year, on the first Wednesday in May, and such others as they judge necessary. Judges of the supreme and superior courts hold their offices during good behavior, but become disqualified at the age of 70.—No person is compelled to join, or support, or to be classed with or associated to, any congregation, whurch or religious association; but every person may be compelled to pay his proportion of the expenses of the society to which he may belong; but he may separate himself from the society by leaving a written notice of his wish with the clerk of such society.—The principal Thames, Farmington and Naugatuck. The principal harbors are those of New London and New Haven. The face of the country is greatly diversified by mountams, hills and valleys. There are but few level tracts, and no considerable mountains. The greatest elevation is a range of small mountains on the west side of Connecticut river, being a contimuation of the Green mountains. hills are generally of moderate size, and occur in quick succession, presenting to the traveller an ever-varying prospect The soil is generally fertile, though intermixed with portions that are comparatively thin and barren, and the whole is well watered. It is generally in a state of good cultivitien, resembling, in many parts a well-cultivated garden. The prin-cipal productions are Indian corn, rye, wheat in many parts, oats, barley, buckwheat, flax in large quantines, some hemp, potatoes, pumpkins, turnips, peas, beans, &c. Orchards are very numerous, and cider is made for exportation. The state is, however, generally better adapted to

According to a recent account, Connecticut contains 41,416 houses, 2507,309 acres of land, 1597 mills, 1827 stores and shops, 402 distilleres, 1211 manufactories, 46 fisheries, 33,356 horses, asses, &c. 219,783 neat cattle, 331,054 sheep, 5048 carriages, &c., 21,369 clocks

grazing than to tillage; and its fine meadows and pastures enable the farmers to feed great numbers of neat cattle, horses and sheep. The quantity of butter and cheese made annually is great, and of well-known excellence. Beef and pork of superior quality are also abundant. The state is generally laid out in small farms, from 50 to 300 and 400 acres. It is intersected by numerous roads, which are generally kept in good repair. Though exposed to the extremes of heat and cold, and to sudden changes of temperature, the country is very healthful. The northwest winds, which prevail during the winter, are keen, but the serenity of the sky, during the same season, makes amends, in some degree, for the severity of the weather. In the maritime towns, the weather is particularly variable, changing as the wind blows from sea or land: in the inland country, it is less so. The foreign trade of this state is principally with the West Indies; but its coasting trade is the most considerable. Its exports consist of beef. pork, cattle, horses, mules, butter, cheese, marze, rye, flax-seed, fish, candles and Almost all the produce of the western part of the state is carried to New York. The manufacturing industry of Connecticut is greater, in proportion to the population, that that of any other state in the union, except Rhode Island. manufactures consist of cotton and woollen goods, tin-ware, non, ch., glass, paper, snuff, powder, leather, shoes, clocks, buttons, fire-arms, carriages, &c. Mines of different kinds have been found in this state, but, in general, they have not been wrought to any considerable extent, with the exception of iron ore, which abounds in Sahsbury and Kent, of an excellent quality, and is also found in other places. There is a lead imme on the Connections, two miles from Middletown, which was wrought during the revolutionary war. Copper immes have been discovered and opened in several places, but, having proved unprofitable, they have been neglected. Marble is found in Washington, Milford, Brookfield and New Milford; porcelain clay in New Milford and Cornwall; black lead in New Milford and Marlborough; cobalt in Chatham; and sellent freestone in Chatham, Haddam and East Hartford. There are several mineral springs, but more of much note, except those of Statiord and Suffield. The one at Stafford is the most celebrated in New England.

The constitutions of the colony on the banks of the Connecticut, of the years 1638

and 1650, and the most ancient record of the colony of New Haven (q.v.), are of no little historical interest, as indications of the deep feeling of the necessity of laws in the mind of man, and of the stern and sombre religious spirit of the first settlers of those colonies. The chapter of capitall lawes, in the code of 1650, is almost verbally copied from the Mosaic law. It inflicts death, among other offences, for the worshipping of any other god but the Lord God; being a witch, that is, consulting with a familiar spirit; blaspheming the name of God the Father, Son or Holy Ghost; adultery, rape, sodomy, stealing; bearing false witness, in order to take away another man's life; cursing of parents by a child above 16; or on a son who manifests a stubborn and rebellious spirit after having been chastised by his parents. &c. The plantation covenant, recorded in the oldest record of the colony of New Haven, is one of the purest specimens of the contrat social of Rousseau. (See New Haven.) A small work, published in 1825 (Hartiord, by Silas Andrus), affords a cunous illustration of the character of the early settlers of Connecticut. The title is thus —The Code of 1650, being a Comptlation of the earliest Laws and Orders of the General Court of Connecticut; also the Constitution, or Civil Compact entered into and adopted by the Towns of Windsor. Hartford and Wether-field, in 1638-49: to which are added some Extracts from the Laws and Judicial Proceedings of New Haven Colony, commonly called Blue Laurs. (For the blue laws, see New Haven.)

Connecticut: the great river of New England. It has its source on the north border of New Hampshire, and separates New Hampshire from Vermont, passes through Massachusetts and Connecticut," and flow- into Long Island sound, between Saybrook and Lame. Its general course is S by W. till it reaches Middletown (Connecticut), after which it has a S. S. F., course to its mouth. Its whole length is 110 miles. It is navigable for vessels drawing 10 feet of water to Middletown, 36 miles; for those drawing 8 feet, to Hartford, 50 miles; and, by means of locks and canals, it has been rendered. navigable to the Fifteen Mile falls, Bath (New Hampshire), 250 miles above Hartford. The boats which navigate the river carry-from 12 to 20 tons in descending, and about two thirds as much in return-The falls which have been rendered passable by artificial means are those at Eufield (Connecticut), the Willemantic falls, those at South Hadley, Montague, Walpole,

markable. According to a survey made in 1824, the falls in the Connecticut, between Hanover (New Hampshire) and Enfield (Connecticut), measure 371 feet. On these falls were locks measuring 218 feet, viz., at South Hadley, 50 feet; Nutter's fulls, 71 feet; Bellows falls, 484; Waterqueechy, 121; and White river, 36 The Connecticut flows through a fine country. The land bordering upon it is generally of an excellent quality; and there are upon its banks many beautiful and flourishing towns; among which are Haverhill, Hanover, Charlestown and Walpole (New Hampshire): Newbury, Windsor and Brattleborough (Vermont); Greenfield, Hadley, Northampton and Springfield (Massachusetts); Hartford and Middletown, &c. (Connecticut).

CONON, an Athenian commander, was one of the generals who succeeded Alcıbudes in the command of the fleet in the Peloponnesian war, and, engaging Calli-cratidas, was defeated; but afterwards gamed a victory, in which the Spartan commander lost his life. On the subjuga-tion of Athens, B. C. 405, he remained at Cyprus, forming plans for the restoration of the prosperity of his country. By persuading Artaverses, king of Persia, that the superiority of the Lucedemonians was injurious to the safety of his dominions, and that they could only be checked by rendering the Athemans able to oppose them, he procured the command of a Persian fleet, B. C. 308, attacked the Spartan admiral Pisander near Cindos, and, killing him with his own hand, defeated the Spartans, who lost the greatest part of their flegt. The empire of the sea was numediately transferred, and the power of the Lacedamomans in Asia Minor immediately ceased. Conon then returned to Attıca, and employed his sailors and workmen in restoring the fortifications of Athens. He fell a prey to the hatred and envy of the Lacedemonians, who, in a treaty of peace with the Persians, accused him of plotting the delivery of Æoha and Ionia to his countrymen, and of the misappropriation of the king's money and forces. He was accordingly apprehended, and, as some writers relate, was put to death at Susa; others say that he made his escape; but the event is doubtful. .

Conquest. By conquest is now generally understood the right over property acquired in war, or by superior force. In the feudal law, it had a somewhat different sense, meaning any means of acquir-

Plainfield and Lebanon. Of these, Beling an estate out of the common course of lows falls, at Walpole, are the most reinheritance. (2, B. Comm. 243.) The inheritance. (2. Bl. Comm. 243.) The right of conquest has been deduced as an inference of natural law, from the right to weaken our enemy, to compel him to make compensation for injuries, to force him to an equitable peace, and to deter or prevent him from future injuries. It presupposes a just war, and a right of appropriation growing out of it. It is now generally admitted as a part of the law of nations. If a war be unjust, it is plain that it can receive no sanction from the law of nature or the law of nations; and, therefore, no just acquisitions can arise from it. But who is to decide whether the war be just or unjust? If neutral nations attempt to decide the question without consent, they draw themselves into the quarrel, and may be involved in The parties who wage war the war. never avow that they are acting unjustly. and will not admit any superior, who has a right to decide such questions for them. Nations claim a perfect equality and independence, and therefore will not submit to the decision of any other sovereign. The only answer, in a practical view, that can be given to the question is, that every free and sovereign state must decide for itself, whether it is carrying on a just war, and what are the duties required of it in such a war. With a view to public safety and repose, neutral nations are understood to be bound to act upon certain rules, which may be called the robuntary law of nations. Among these rules the following are universally admitted :—1. that every regular war, as to its effects, is to be deemed, by neutral nations, just on both sides; 2. that whatever is permitted to the one to do, in virtue of the state of war, is also permitted to the other; 3. that the acquisitions made by each belingerent in the war are to be held lawful, and to be respected; 4. that neutral nations are bound to impartiality in their conduct to each of the belligerents. Many questions are discussed by jurists, in respect to the rights of conquest, some of which are of great nicety and subtiley. To enumerate them, without adverting to the various shades of opinion, would itself occupy a large discourse. We shall content ourselves, herefore, by enumerating a few only of the principles, which, by the benignity of foligion and the enlarged influence of knowledge and public opinion, are now generally received among civilized nations. Conquest may respect, either persons or things. It may respect movable or immovable property. It may apply to a whole nation, or only to a sin-

the inhabitants by their former laws, of to service permanent.—1. Conquest over create a new form of government; or permanent.—1. Persons captured in war are haps, in an extreme case to discover allest a service and the service of called prisoners of war, especially if they are taken in arms. If they are included in a mere surrender of territory, without Theing in arms, they are commonly decined subjects, for the time being, upon their submission. But the conqueror may, if he chooses, consider all his enemies who surrender as prisoners of war, though it would be deemed a harsh and vindictive course. The conqueror has no right to inflict upon prisoners of war any unnecessary injury or violence. He has no right to take away their lives, or subject them to cruel punishments. Formerly, they were sometimes removed into other countries, or reduced to a state of slavery for hie. But these would now be thought such extreme exercises of power, as no Christian sovereign ought to authorize. Christian sovereigns now usually keep prisoners of war under guard, in suitable depots, until they are ransomed, or exchanged by eartel, or restored upon the return of peace. Upon their return to their own country, all such prisopers are, by the law of postliming, as it is called, considered as redintegrated to all their original rights and privileges. Officers in the public service are often released upon dien, parole of honor, by which they promise not to serve again in the war, until they are regularly exchanged; and, of they remain in the country of the conqueror, they are required to keep within certain timits, and report themselves at stated seasons to some proper officers. It' they break their parole, they are universally esteemed infamous, and, it again taken in war, may be treated with great seventy for their conduct.-Where persons are not found in arms, but are included as inhabitants of a town or provmee which has surrendered, they are treated generally as subjects. The origihal allegance to their own government is suspended, and they come under the implied obligation to the conqueror, to violate none of his rights, to submit to his orders, and to demean themselves, for the time, as faithful subjects. Under such circumstances, the conquerof generally leaves them in possession of their property, and exercises his power with moderation, usually quartering his troops upon them, levying taxes, and punishing them only for rebellious or traitorous conduct.-Where the conquest is of a whole state (as, indeed, is true also of a town or small territory), the conqueror has authority either to rule

haps, in an extreme case, to dissolve their society. Where the conquest is temporary." while war rages, it is rare for the conqueror to change the laws. But, where the conquest is permanent, or is recognised by a treaty of peace, the conqueror usually exercises his sovereign power to annul or vary the laws, or form of government. according to his own pleasure. It is not usual, in modern times, to change the findemental laws of a country, in cases of conquest, unless under ver/ pressing cir-. cumstances. But the sovereign power of the conqueror so to do is conceded by the law of nations.-2. Conquest of This may be of movable or property. immovable property. In the former case, it is commonly called plunder, or booty, or prize of war, according to the circumstances under which it is taken. In the latter case, it merely follows from the right of occupation and superior force; and, therefore, the right of property continues no longer than such occupation by superior force. The original proprietor is reinstated in his rights the moment the conquest is abandoned.—As the law of nations allows the conqueror, in its utmost strictness, to appropriate to himself all the property of his enemies, as soon as it is within his reach by conquest, the extent to which he shall exercise this harsh powcr must depend upon his own moderation and sense of justice. ' Neutral nations always respect the title conferred by conquest when it is already established; and enemics respect it offly so far as it suits their own convenience and policy, when in the hands of enemies. But, when acquired ey a neutral, they also respect the title; for that which, by the law of nations, is lawfolly acquired by an enemy, may be lawfully transferred to a neutral, and thus the latter may acquire a valid title. There is a distinction, in this respect, between n%vable and immovable property. No conquest of the latter is esteemed absolute, so as to divest the original proprietor, unless confirmed by a treaty of peace, or an entire submission and extinction of the, state to which it belongs, or by an acquiescence so long, that it amounts to an abandonment of all prior right and title. But movable property, which is capable of being conveyed from one country to another, becomes the absolute right of the conquerors from the moment of conquest and complete possession. Movable property, captured in the heat of battle, or as an immediate result of victory, by an army

on land, is often called booty or plunder, ing to an admission of rights. The con It belongs to the conquering sovereign, queror usually appropriates the public, and portions of it are usually distributed domains to himself, and generally leaves; captured is given up to indiscriminate Private property is, for the most part, respected; but public property is appropriated by the sovereign to such purposes as he pleases. All property captured in war may be justly denominated prize. But, in a more limited sense, that is called prize property, which is acquired by capture and surrender upon land or upon the ocean, and is disposed of by some formal proceedings, under the sovereign authority. Thus, in England and America, all property captured on the ocean, by public or private armed ships, is required to be brought into port, and condemned as prize by the lawful prize tribunals, before the captors acquire any rights under the capture; and, in cases of joint captures, by land and naval forces, a sinnlar proceeding is usually had .- A question is often discussed, at what time movable property captured is so completely in the power of the captors, as to give them a per-Writers on the law of nafect title to it. tions differ on the point; and the practice of nations also differs. Some writers hold that it should be carried to a place of safety; as, for instance, if captured at set, that it should be carried into port (wifra præsidia) before the title of the original proprietor is divested. Others contend that it is sufficient that the property has remained in possession of the captors 24 hours. But, at present, in England and America at least, a sentence of condemnation is considered indispensable to divest the right of the original proprietor in movable Nevertheless, if a treaty of peace takes place between the belligerents, and no contrary provision is made, the actual state of things, in relation to captures, is deemed rightful; and neither can reclaim any thing of the other on account of such captures, whether there has been a condemnation or not.—This quesyou, with regard to the title to movable property, chiefly arises in cases of recapture, or other cases where the jus postliminii, or right upon repossession or return of the property to the country of the origmal proprietor, occurs.-3. Conquest of immovable property. It has been already. observed that, of such property, the title by conquest is not deemed perfect or complete, unless recognised by a treaty of peace, or cession, by an extinction of the state, or by a long acquiescence, amount-

VOL. 111.

among the officers and soldiers. It seldom private property in possession of the original happens now, that any place which is nal proprietors.—Whenever there is a reconquest or reoccupation by the original? proprietors, their original right returns by. the jus postliminii; and no intervening title, unless confirmed by treaty, or by some other niode, as above stated, is recognised, although it may have passed into the hands of a neutral. Where a conquest is temporary, it gives validity to titles to immovable property only while it lasts. It merely suspends the rights of the former proprietors at the conqueror's choice; but these rights revive as soon as the conquest is abandoned. The same thing is true as to the laws of the conquered territory, whether it be a town, province or state. The conqueror may, if he chooses, suspend all the common laws which regulate persons or property, during his occupation, and impose new ones; but the old, laws revive as soon as the conquest is surrendered or abandoned. Acts however, done during the possession by the conqueror, according to his laws, are considered as rightful for many purposes. Thus, if goods are imported into a conquered terrators, with the consent of the conqueror, they are not liable to forfeiture afterwards, although prohibited by the laws of the country antecedent to the conquest. But the prohibitory laws revive, as soon as the territory is regained, by their own force, proprio vigore.-In general, the laws of a conquered territory remain in full force until they are altered by the conqueror. As soon as the conqueror receives the partics under his protection by capitulation or otherwise, they become his subjects; and they are entitled to have their persons and property secure from violation.—The question is often asked, To whom do things taken in war belong? to the cantors, or to their sovereign? The the captors, or to their sovereign? true answer is, To the sovereign. Whatever is acquired in war is acquired by the state; and the manner in which the property so acquired shall be disposed of or distributed depends upon the orders of the In cases of prizes upon the occan, it is usual for the state to distribute the property captured, after condemnation, as a bounty among the captors.

CONRADIN of Suabia; the last of the imperial house of the Hohenstaufen (q. v.); son of Conrad IV, and grandson of the emperor Frederic II, from whom he inherited Naples and Sicily in 1254. Pope Clement IV would not acknowledge him,

because he was the son of a prince who died in excommunication, and therefore · conferred Sicily on Charles of Anjou, brother to Louis IX (St. Louis), king of France. As the administration of Charles occasioned great dissatisfaction, the people called in Conradino, as he was termed by the Italians. He came, accompanied by his friend, Frederic prince of Baden, with about 10,000 men, in 1267. At first, fortune seemed to favor him ; in 1268, he entered Rome at the head of his army; but, at Tagliacozzo, he was defeated, and, on his flight, betrayed by Frangipani, and taken prisoner with his friend. Charles of Amou, with the consent of the pope, ordered them to be beheaded, Oct. 25, 1268, in the market-place of Naples. Conradin was but 16 years old. He died with admirable firmness, after having declared his relation, Peter of Arragon, the hen of Peter gamed possession of his realm. Sicily in 1282, when the Sicilan vespers put an end to the French power in that country. It is supposed that a German poem, a Minnelica, or love song, the second in the Manessian collection, and bearing the name of king Conrad, was com-, posed by him. He had inherited a love for the German language and poetry from his grandfather Frederic II. (See Fiederic von Raunier's Geschichte der Hohenstaufen und ihrer Zeit, 6 vol-., Leip-ic, 1-25.)

Conring, Hermann, one of the greatest scholars of his time, was born at Norden, in East Friesland, in 1606; survived an attack of the plague, and afterwards studred at Helmstadt and Leyden, devoting himself chiefly to theology and medieme: was appointed, in 1632, professor of plulosophy at Helmstadt, in 1636 professor of medicine, and remained in this city until his death in 1681. He was distinguished in almost every department of knowledge, and was invited, in 1649, by the princess of East Friesland, to be her physician. In 1650, he received a similar invitation from Christma queen of Sweden, and, m 1664, a pension from Louis At a later period, the title of a counsellor was conferred on him by the kings of Denmark and Sweden and the elector of the Palatinate. He was then made professor of law. The German emperor likewise distinguished him. From far and near his advice was sought in political and legal cases. He did a great deal for the history of the German empire, and for the improvement of German public law, in which he opened a new path. He wrote, it is true, no new system or compendium, but many treatises on particular subjects, highly serviceable for others, and educated many celebrated scholars. Such were his acquirements, and his confidence in his ability to apply them, that he is said, on offering his hand to a lady, to have asked her whether she would like to have him a theologian, jurist, diplomatist or physician. His complete works, with his biography, were published in 1730, in Brunswick, 6 vok. fol, by Góbel. They contain political, historical, medical, philosophical, juridical, &c. treatises, besides letters and poems.

Consalvi, Ercole, cardinal and prime mmister of pope Pins VII, was born, m 1757, at Toscanella; studied theology, polilies, music and literature. His views on the French revolution, publicly expressed, gamed lum the favor of the aunts of Louis  ${f XVI}$  , and, through the influence of, these ladies, he became auditor of the rota at Rome. In this capacity, he was charged to have an eye upon the friends of the French, which he did with great strictness, and, on this account, was banished when the French entered Rome, in 1798. He afterwards became sceretary of cardinal Charamonti, and, when his patron was elected pope (Pins VII), became one of the first cardinals, and afterwards secretary of state. Consaly: was the person who concluded the famous concordate with In 1806, cardinal Casoni de Napoleon. Sarzana took his place, and Consalva hved, like his master, in a kind of retirement In 1814, he become papal minister at the congress of Vienna, where he effected the restoration of the marks and legations to the pope. In 1815, he conducted the negonations with France; at the same time, he drew up the celebrated edict motu proprio. Until the death of Prus VII, he remamed at the head of all the political and ecclesiastical affairs of the Roman government, and possessed the fullest confidence of the pope. He gave a large sum to erect a monument to his master, and died m Rome, Jan. 24, 1824.

Conserrors; the embring (enrolement, in French) of the inhabitants of a country capable of bearing arms, by a compulsory levy, at the pleasure of the government. It is distinguished from recruiting, or voluntary, enlistment. The name is derived from the military constitution of ancient Rome. Every Roman citizen was obliged to serve as a soldier from his 17th to his 45th year; hence no recruiting, in the 'modern sense of the word, took place, but only levying (delectus). According to law, four legions of

infantry (6666 men composing one legion), two for each consul, were annually levied. The consuls who, in the time of the republic, were always commanders of the army, announced every year, after the legionary tribunes were elected, by a herald or a written order, that a levy was to be made (milites rogere, colligere, scribere, This was the proper conconscribere). All citizens capable of bearing scription. arms were obliged, under penalty of losing their fortune and liberty, to assemble in the Campus Martius, or near the capitol, where the consuls, seated in their curdle chairs, made the levy by the assistance of the legionary tribunes. The consuls ordered such as they pleased to be cited out of each tribe, and every one was obliged to answer to his name, after which as many were chosen as were wanted. This lasted until the time of the emperors, when large armies were constantly required: these were generally, recruited in the provinces. France, in the beginning of the revolution, declared it the duty and honor of every citizen to serve in the army of his country. Every French catizen was born a soldier, and obliged to serve in the army from 16 to 40 years of age. From 40 to 60 years, he belonged to the national guard. Every year, the young men of the military age were assembled, and distributed in the different radicaly It was decided by lot who, among the able-bodied men of sunable age, should take arms. In several states belonging to the confederation of the Rhme, this measure was aimtated. But the constant wars under the imperial government, and the anticipation, in some cases, of the year of conscription, made this usage, though just and patriotic in its principle, so impopular in France, that it was deemed necessary to abolish it in the charter (Charle constitutionnelle, art. 12). In the kingdom of Westphalia, and some other states of the confederation of the Rhme, a great part of the soldiers rauged by conscription served so reluctantly, that the governments made parents, and even neighbors, answerable for their conduct. In a greater or less, degree, however, conscription exists, at present, throughout the continent of Europe. In Prussia, every person, except the mediatisod princes, and the sons of a widow who support her, &c. (the latter exceptions also exacted in France), is obliged to serve three years in the standing army, from 17 years of age to 21; after this, he belongs to the militia (q. v.) until 50. Those, however, who enter the army voluntarily, and pay for

their equipment, serve but one year in the standing army; but only such persons as, on examination, appear to have a certain degree of education, are admitted. Theological students are not exempted. In Austria, a person once enlisted must serve as long as the government pleases. Den-mark is the only continental state in which the old principle, common in Europe before the French revolution, is kept up, that all persons born in cities, the sons of officers and noblemen, are exempted from service. In England and the U. States, no citizen is obliged to serve in the standing army. The character, therefore, of the armies of these two countries is very different from that of those on the continent of Europe, the latter being of a decidedly superior quality. The advantage of obtaining superior soldiers, however, would never reconcile the people of these two countries to the system of compelling citizens to serve in the standing army. (See Militia.)

Consecration; the action by which a thing, animal or person is destined for the service of God or of the deities of pagamsin. It is opposed to profunction and sacrilege. With the Romans, consecratio at first signified only dedication; but under . the emperors, it denoted deification (anotions) (See . Ipotheosis.) The Greek and Roman Catholic churches practise the consecution of things and persons, and ground the usage on numerous passages in the Old Testament and several in the That God commanded consecration in the Old Testament is undeniable. (For the consecration of priests, see Priest.) In a narrower sense, the word consecration is particularly used for the act of the priest who celebrates the mass, by which he is considered as changing the bread and wipe into the real body and blood of Christ. There was formerly a warm contest between the Greek and Roman Cathohe churches on this subject; the former maintaining that, in the consecration of the elements, it was necessary not only to use the words of Christ, but to invoke the Holy Spirit; while the latter denied that any such invocation was required. At . present, the Greeks themselves are divided on this point. The Protestants do not consider consecration so important as the two Catholic sects do. (See the articles Sacrament and Transubstantiation.) The consecration of the pope is a ceremony which takes place immediately after his election.

Conservatorio. (See the following article.)

CONSERVATORY (conservatorio, in Italian); a musical school intended for the scientific cultivation of musical talents. They are sometimes public benevolent establishments, including hospitals, supported by rich private persons. The pupils have board, lodging, clothing and instruction gratis. Besides these pupils, others are received, who pay for their instruction; as, in Italy, the instruction in conservatories is preferred to private teaching. In Naples, there were formerly three conservatories for boys; in Venice, four for girls. The most famous among the former was that of Santa Maria Loretto, established in 1537. Leo, Durante, Scarlatti and Porpora were teachers at this school; and, among the great musicians educated there, it counted the distinguished names of Traetta, Piccini, Sacchihi, Gugliehni, Anfossi, Paesiello, and others. There were generally more than 200 pupils from 8 to 10 years of age in the conservatory of Loretto; in the others, about half this number. Pupils were received from 8 to 20 years of age. The period during which they obliged themselves to stay in the establishment was generally 8 years. If, however, at was discovered that a pupil had no talents for music, he was sent away. The conservatories in Venn'e were established in the same way. They were called ospedale della pietà, delle mendicanti, delle incurabili, and ospedaletto di San Giovanni e Paolo. Sacclini was for a long time the first instructer in the latter. The girls were obliged to conform to a very strict monastic kind of life, and used to remain in the establishment till they were married. All instruments used in the public concerts were played here by gnfs and women. From these conservatories issued the great number of composers and male and fimale singers, who were met in every part of Europe. In Naples, the conservatories are reduced to a single establishment, which, in 1818, was removed to the former numery of St. Scha-nano, and received the name real collegio di musica. In Milan, the vicerov Engene established a conservatory in 1808, the direction of which was given to Asioh. It has 14 professors and 60 pupils. I Trance, music was very little cultivated until Italian and German music was introduced by Piccini, Sacchim, Gluck and others. The want of singers was now felt. The opera therefore established a musical school, and, in 1784, it was elevated into an école royale de chant et de déclamation. But it was not until the revolution that this institu-

tion acquired a high degree of importance. The want of musicians for 14 armies was . then felt, and in November, 1793, the convention decreed un institut national de musique. In 1795, it received its final organization, and the name of conservatoire. It was intended for both sexes. 600 pupils, from all the departments, were to be instructed there by 115 teachers. The expenses were fixed at 210,000 francs annually, but, in 1802, were limited to 100,000 francs, and, in consequence, the number of pupils and teachers was rediæd. The instruction was divided between music and theatrıcal declamation. The most distinguished musicians have been instructers in this institution; of whom we need only mention Gossec, Mehul, Garat, Choron, Cheruban, Gretry. Boieldien, Krentzer, &c. Since its foundation, 2000 musicians and singers of both sexes have been educated there. At the same time, the conservatoire is the central point of all amateurs of music. The pubhe performances of the pupils are the most splendid concerts in Paris. The execution of symphonies, in particular, is unparalleled. For almost all branches of music, the conserpatoire has published elementary works, or methods, as they are called, which are enculated and adopted throughout Europe. The institutions of the same name, in Vicena and Prague, are less important. The

Conservatoire royal des Arts et Meliers at Paris, is an establishment, which deserves the greatest praise, containing a collection of models of machines, of manufactures, &c., and having professors, who dehver lectures on mechanics, chemistry, and the processes used in manufacturing, to persons who wish to prepare themselves for pursuing mechanical arts and the business of manufacturing in a scientific way. The king selects the pupils. The foundation of this praiseworthy establishment was hid on the 19th Vendemiatre, year 111 (Oct. 10, 1794), by the convention. After many important changes, it was finally organized by an ordinance, Nov. 25, 1819. The institution is in the rue St. Martin.

Conservatory, in gardening, is a term of generally applied, by gardeners, to planthouses, in which the plants are raised in a bed or border without the use of pots. They are sometimes placed in the pleasure ground, along with the other hothouses, but more frequently attached to the mansion. The principles of their construction are, in all respects, the same as for the green-house, with the single difference

of a pit or bed of earth being substituted for the stage, and a narrow border instead of surrounding flues. The power of admitting abundance of air, both by the sides and roof, is highly requisite both for the green-house and conservatory; but for the latter, it is desirable, in almost every case, that the roof, and even the glazed sides, should be removable in summer. When the construction of the conservatory does not admit of this, the plants in a few years become etiolated, and naked below, and are no longer objects of beauty; but when the whole superstructure, excepting the north side, is removed during summer, the influence of the rams, winds, dews, and the direct rays of the sun, produces a bushiness of form, closeness of foliage, and a vividness of color, not attainable by any Therefore a conservatory other means. of any of the common forms, unless it be one devoted entirely to palms, ferns, scitamineae, or other similarly growing plants, should always be so constructed as to admit of taking off the sashes of the roof and the front; and if it be a detached structure in the flower-garden, a plan that would admit of the removal of every thing excepting the flues and the plants, would be the most suitable.

Consilium abbundi (Latin; advice to depart). There are two ways in Germany of dismissing a student from a universitythe consilium abenuali, and the relegatio. The former is without any imputation on the morals of the student, and inflicted for youthful naprudences; the latter is the punishment of crimes. Since the late pohee regulations respecting the universities, the relegatio is an extremely severe punishment, as the German diet at Frankfort made a rule that no relegated student should be admitted into another university, or be capable of any appointment by The pardon any German government. of the ruler, however, can generally be obtained by a change of conduct.

Consistory (from the Latin consistyrium). This word has been handed down from the time of the Roman emperors, particularly from the time of the emperor Adram, who died A. D. 138. The empe-·rors had a dollege of counsellors (consistoriam) about them, who were obliged to be always together (consistere), in order to determine the cases which were brought The council was before the emperor. called consistorium sacrum, or consistorium When the Roman hierarchy principum. had become firmly established, and the bishops had acquired jurisdiction in many cases, they imitated the institutions and

names appertaining to the secular power.: Thus, down to the present time, the highest council of state, in the papal government, has been called consistory. ordinary consistory of the pope assembles every week in the papal palace; the extraordinary consistories are called together, by the pope, according as occasions rise for regulating anew the affairs of the Church. These are called secret consisto-All political affairs of importance, the election of cardinals, archbishops and bishops, &c., are transacted in the consistoly. Also in Protestant countries, on the European continent, consistories exist, which manage the affairs of the church as far as the monarch, the highest bishop, allows In Russia, they are little more than the executive officers of the minister, through whom he manages the concerns of schools and churches. In Vienna, and in Paris, likewise, Protestant consistories exist, which are the highest Protestant ecclesiastical bodies in those countries.

CONSOLATO DEL MARL. (See Commercial Law.)

Cossons; the abbreviation of consolidated, i. e., funds; the largest of the English funds, formed by the consolidation of different annuties, which had been severally formed into a capital. (See Funds.)

Consonance, if we deduce the definition of this word from its etymology, is the effect of two or more sounds heard at the same time; but its signification is generally confined to concording intervals. When the interval of a consonance is invariable, it is called perfect; and when it may be either major or immor, it is termed

imperfect.

Consonants (from the Latin con-sondus, sounding at the same time); those letters which cannot be pronounced by themselves, but want the aid of yowels, as, b, k. This circumstance shows that the division of syllables into letters is artificial; the natural division of languages being syllables, which, in fact, are the elementary sounds of which languages are composed. It deserves, however, the praise of great ingenuity; may, we consider it as one of those grand and sample ideas, which, like the invention of the mode of writing numbers, in the way in which it is performed with the Arabic ciphers, as they are called, evince the most philosophical There does spirit in their conceivers. not, in most instances, exist, in reality, so clear a division between the consonants and vowels of a syllable, as we express by writing, but both form one inseparable sound. Consonants are to be considered

38 \*

the more permanent part of language. The vowels are comparatively little regard ed in etymology. Some nations, as, for instance, the Hebrews, did not even write the greater number of the vowels. We do not know of any language, in which all the five simple vowels—a (bar), c (where), i (bill), o (rode), u (push)—or the five vowel sounds, such as they exist in the continental languages of Europe—are not found but in respect to the consonants, languages differ very much: thus the German has no sound like the English th: the English no German ch; both no Polish guttural L &c. Some nations have an antipathy towards certain classes of consonants, and use them, either not at all, or seldom, as is the case, for instance, with several Indian tribes. The various interesting relations of consonants to vowels, and of the sounds and letters in the different idioni-, have not yet received any satisfactory investigation, which is so much the more désirable, as general philology has attracted, in this age, the attention of several distinguished literati, both in Europe and this hemisphere. Mr. P. Duponcean has led the way, in these investigations, by his English Phonology, or an Essay towards an Analysis and Description of the component Sounds of the English Language, published in the Transactions of the Amer. Philosophical Society, in Philadelphia, vol. 1. new ser. 1818—a treatise which ranks with the other productions of the same acute, comprehen-sive and learned mand. We have no doubt that the more the science of languages is developed the more obvious will be the necessity of the study of phonology, by which Mr. Duponecan denotes, in general, the knowledge of the sounds produced by the human voice. The various relations of consonants and vowels will then be mvestigated. In the Essay on Phonology, the learned inquirer says, "I have not been able to discover, in the English language, more than 29 pure elementary sounds, of which 7 are vocal, 21 organic or consonant, and 2 are aspirations or spirits." In a spelling-book of the Sandwich island language, printed at the Sandwich islands, there are but 12 consonants enumerated :  $\ell$ , f, g, q, s, x, p, y, not occurring in the language. In different languages, the consonants are classified in different ways: thus, in Greek, I, according to the organs, into

Labials,  $\beta$ ,  $\pi$ ,  $\phi$ ,  $\mu$ ; Linguals,  $\delta$ ,  $\tau$ ,  $\theta$ ,  $\tau$ ,  $\lambda$ ,  $\rho$ ,  $\sigma$ , Palatics,  $\gamma$ ,  $\lambda$ ,  $\chi$ or, 2, according to their qualities, into Semi-wowels, λ, μ, ν, ρ, called, also, liquids, and the sibilant σ and Mutes, which are Aspirates, φ, χ, θ:
• Medials, β, γ, δ;
· Soft, π, κ, τ

It is a matter of the greatest interest to investigate the different relations of consonants, and to observe how they run into each other, both in words of the same language, and in words transferred from one language to another. This is of particular use in learning languages derived from Latin; for instance, the Latin f was pronounced, by the Spaniards, so soft, that it became an h, and at last vanished, in pronunciation, entirely, so that facere became hacer. The circumstance that consonants cannot be pronounced by themselves, and that there is an almost infinite variety of shades between the different consonants, and even in the pronunciation of the same consonant, is the reason that there is much more difference between different languages in regard to the pronunciation of consonants than that of vowels, and that hardly an alphabet exists which provides for every organic sound or consonant by a proper letter; almost all contrive, in a conventional way, to designate certain consonants peenhar to them. It ought, however, not to be forgotten, that one reason of this encum-tance is, that most nations did not invent the alphabet which they use, but peceived that of a more cultivated nation, adapted to a more improved language. The Greek alphabet is one of the purest; we mean one which needs the fewest artificial contrivances, in order to designate its various sounds, though it has to denote many The alphabet now used for the Sandwich island language may, indeed, be called purer; but it has to designate only a few elementary sounds, compared with the alphabets of other languages. We must direct our reader's attention to Mr. John Pickering's Essay on a Uniform Orthography for the Indian Languages of North America, in the Transactions of the American Academy, and published by itself, Cambridge, Mass., 1820, according to which the missionaries have already print- . ed several works in those languages. (See Orthography.) The melodious sound or music of a language depends, in part, upon the proportion of the vowels to the consonants, a language becoming too hard if there are too many consonants. We do not say that the cuphony of a language depends entirely on this proportion, and that it becomes the more melodious ac-

cording as the proportion of vowels is greater. In this, as in every thing else, much of the effect depends on the distribution of the elements. The proper disposition of the vowels and consonants, the happy mingling of the long and short, of the accented and unaccented vowels, produces the sweet harmony of a tongue. Many savage idoms, which sound little better than the marticulate cries of animals, are full of vowels; indeed, the gry of anumals itself is mostly composed of vocal sounds. The euphony of a phrase is not unirequently produced by a consonant, as in the way in which a hiatus is avoided in Greek. So, too, the French, for the sake of euphony, sound the s in such connexions as his ans; while they omit sounding that letter in cases where it immediately precedes a consonant, as in les chevaur. There are several other things required to give harmony to the sound of a language; for instance, the clear pronunciation of the vowels, if they are in abundance. It occurred to the writer, while preparing this article, that it would lead to interesting results, if the proportion of the yowels and consonants, in the different languages, could be ascertained; but the conclusions, to which he has been led by such investigation as he has bestowed on the subject, are rather to be regarded as indications of what might be learned from more thorough inquiries, than 'as facts from which general deductions can be safely drawn. In making the comparison, passages have been taken from the popular poets of different countries. The different passages were in the same measure, or in measures very similar, so that the number of syllables in each would be very Tor English, Italian. nearly the same German, Portuguese and Spanish, three stanzas have been taken from each of the following poems respectively-the beginning of Childe Harold, Jerusalem Delivered, the Dedication of Gothe, prefixed to his Faust, the Luisiada of Cambens, and the Francana; for French, 24 lines of the beginning of the Thebaide of Racine; for Greek (Iome), 24 hexameters of the beginning of the Odyssey, and for the Attie dialect, the beginning of the Anabasis; and for Latin, the 24 first hexameters of Ovid. To give any thing like accuracy to such investigations, it is obvious that the results ought to be taken both from prose and poetry, also from many different writers, and the language of conversation. In the beginning of the Odyssey, the proportion of consonants to vowels was found to be as 3:4-a very melodious proportion, as

will soon be seen. It ought, however, not to be forgotten, that the Greek language is full of diphthongs, which, in counting, were reckoned always as two letters, because, with regard to many, it is not easy to say whether they were pronounced altogethers as one sound, or, in some measure, as two, as the Italians pronounce poura. In the Attic dialect, the proportion of consonants to vowels was as 1:1.006. The difference, then, between the Ionic and Attic dialect, would be.

Iome, 
$$= 3:4 = 1:1.333...$$
Attic,  $= 1:1.006$ 

$$0.327$$

there would, therefore, be 0.327 more vowels in the lonic dialect—a very great difference. In Latin, the proportion of consonants to vowels was a little less than 6:5; and in Italian, as 11:10:

Latin, 
$$=$$
 1.2:-1  
Italian,  $=$  1.1:1  
 $0.1$ 

which would show, if eiphony depended altogether upon this propertion, that the Italian language had added one tenth to the euphory of the Latin. The harmony of the Tuscan dialect was forcibly recalled to the mind of the writer, while counting the letters, by the great similarity in the number of letters in each verse; a very uniform distribution of vowels and consonants, therefore, exists in the beautiful and musical tongue of Ariosto and Dante. In Spanish (not counting the h, and counting qu before c and i as one letter, ch before e and i in Italian having also been counted as one), the proportion of consonants to vowels was found to be a little less than 1.24: 1, or a little more than 6 consonants to 5 vowels. It must be objet, served here, that the Italian language has very many double consonants, as *opponer*, volli, bellezza, &c., which, in respect to emphony, ought to be counted only as one, because they are hardly heard as two, and only give a peculiar sound to the preceding vowel. But this would increase the proportion of vowels in the language very much, particularly in comparison with Spanish, which has thrown out almost all the double consonants except II. In Portuguese, the consonants were to the vowels as 1.02:1. This shows a greater quantity of vowels in the Portuguese than in Spanish; but the very frequent repetition of nasal sounds in the former deprives it of much of its musical character. Thus far the amount of vowels and consonants was pretty easily ascertained, because the three languages of Latin descent, whose proportions have been given, have so far simplified their orthography, that little more is written than the pronunciation requires: but how different is the case in French and English! What a difference, for instance, between the sounds and number of letters in the third verse of the Thébaide,

 Mes yeux depuis six mois étoient ouverts aux larmes, and in the first verse of Childe Harold,

Oh thou, in Hellas deemed of heavenly birth '

In the specimens of these two languages, therefore, the writer first counted all the written consonants and vowels, and secondly the consonantal and vocal sounds, reckoning all the simple sounds, as th, sh, in English, or cu, ou, in French, as one, and leaving out the letters not pronounced at all, as gh in though, or ent in etoient. The proportion ascertained by the first enumeration may be termed the orthographic proportion; that ascertained by the second, the phonic proportion. The same way of counting was employed on German, not because, in this idiom, so many letters are written, without being pronounced at all, as in the two preceding languages, but because, in German, many simple sounds, as eu, uu, sch, ch, &c. are written with two characters. Every body sees, that such a distinction between the orthographic and phome proportion was necessary, with a view to a comparison between these languages and those before mentioned. A Greek would have written though in this way,  $\theta\omega$ . In French, the orthographic proportion of the consonants to the vowels was found to be 1.27: I, and the phonic proportion, 134:1; so that, in French, more vowels are written and not'separately pronounced, or not at all, than consonants. In English, the orthographic proportion of the consonants to the vowels was 1.52: I, and the phome proportion, 1.51: ... In German, the orthographic proportion of consonants to vowels was 1.64: 1, and the phonic proportion, 1.67: 1. In Swedish, the proportion was 1.64:1; in Dutch, the propertion was 1.5:1, or 3:2. Of the two latter languages, the orthographic proportion only is given, as the writer is not sufficiently acquainted with them to decide, in regard to some letters, whether they should be taken phonically as one or two. The language of the Sandwich islands exhibited the uncommon proportion of consonants to vowels 1:1.8, or five consonants to nine vowels. The great proportion of vowels to consonants, in this idiom, may be seen in the following line, in which it ought to be remembered that every letter is to be pronounced:

-nei au 14 oukou , ar no 1 ka olelo mai, 1 ka olelo a ke Akua.

This line is taken from the missionary spelling-book above mentioned. In the Seneca Indian language, into which the Gospel of St. Luke was translated by T. S. Harris, and published in New York, 1829, the proportion of the consonants to the vowels was as 1.18:1; in Chahta Indian, or the language of the Choctaws, the proportion was 1.2:1. The phonic proportion of consonants to vowels in Sansent was 1.12:1; in Malay, 1.33:1; in Persian, 1.33:1; in Hebrew, 1.2:1, and in common Arabic, 1.08:1. If we then arrange all these proportions in a tabular form, we shall have the following series:

Cor	n.	Vowels	
Sandwich islands 1	l	18	
Creek Vione dial	l	1 333	
Greek   Ionic dial   1	ı	1 00b	
	1 02	1 6	
Common Arabic	08	1*	
Italian	11	1	
Senera Indians 1	118	1	
Chahta Indians	12	1 '	
Sanscrit . 1	1 2	1*)	
Latin	12	1 \$ +	
Hebrews .	12	1.	
Spanish . 1	124	Ī	
	1 33	1*	
Malay 1	133	1* 1	
French, phome prop 1	134	1 orthographic 1.27	1
	5	10	-
English, phome prop 1	1.51	1 orthographic 1.52	1
	1.64	1	•
German, phonic prop. I		1 orthographic 1.61	ŧ

It is easily seen, that, in the languages of I atm origin, the proportion of consonants to vowels is much smaller than in the Teutonic idioms. To compare the proportions of consonants to vowels, in such different families of languages; to show the proportions of the gutturals, labials, & a., of the different idioms; and, again, the proportion of these letters in the various families of languages, or according to the different parts of the earth to which they

\* Those marked with \* are counted phonically † It will be observed that Sanserit, Latin and Hebrew appear to have the same proportion of consonants to vowels; and yet what a total difference between the sounds of these languages!

† The Malay is always considered as one of the sweetest and most Italian-like languages, though the proportion of letters would make it rank far behind Italian

§ The many gutturals in Dutch render the language hard; though, according to the proportion only, it would be softer than English.

belong, as Asiatic, European, &c. languages, and many other calculations—might lead to very interesting conclusions. This branch of philology might be compared to the new department of stachiometry in chemistry, which treats the proportions of the quantities of the elements in a state of neutralization or solution—a branch of science which every day becomes more important, and which has been illustrated by the labors, past and present, of a Berzelius, Klaproth, Döbereiner and others.

Constable (French connétable, from the Latin comes stabuli, count of the stable). This office existed as early as under the Roman emperors, and passed into the constitution of the Franks. After the major domus, or mayor of the palace, had become king, the comes stabuli became the first dignitary of the crown, the commander in chief of the armes, and the highest judge in military affairs. Under the last kings of the house of Valois, the connétable was of so much political influence, that Louis XIII., after the death of the connetable de Lesdiguieres, thought it best not to appoint a new one; and, in 1627, he abolished the office entirely. Napoleon reestablished it as one of the high offices of the empire, but it vanished with his downfall. In England, there was formerly a lord high constable of England, an officer. of the crown of the highest dignity, office of constable appears to have been first granted by William the Conqueror to Walter, earl of Gloucester: or, according to some, to William Fitzosberne, or Roger de Mortimer, and became hereditary in two different families, as annexed to the carldom of Hereford. After two centuries, Edward Stafford, duke of Buckingham, then constable, being attainted of high treason, the office was forfeited to the crown (13 Henry VIII); since which time, lord high constables have been appointed only to officiate at coronations, and on other solemn occasions. There is also the constable of the hundred, or high, chief or head constable, probably sprung from this office, and the constable of the village, or petty constable. The first statute which Pappears to notice the constable is 13 Edward I, ch. 6, wherein "it is ordained that in every hundred, or franchise, there shall be chosen two constables, to make view of armor," &c. ; since which period, the office has been familiarly known in law, and various duties have been imposed upon it by different statutes. Both the high and petty constables are chosen at the leet or term of the hundred, or by justices of the

peace, and, in some places, by the parishioners of towns and parishes, according to ancient and particular usage. The duties of constables are multifarious, but may be summed up under two heads-repressing felonies, and keeping the peace, of which they are the conservators by the common law; they are also bound to execute the precepts of sheriffs, justices of the peace and coroners. In the U. States, constables are town or city officers of the peace, with powers similar to those possessed by the constables of Great Britain. They are invested also with powers to execute civil as well as criminal process, and to levy executions.

CONSTANCE, LAKE OF (or Boden See; properly Bodman See, from the old castle of Bodman), lies between Germany and Switzerland; is 10 leagues in its greatest length, and 3 in its greatest breadth, and 14 in its least. It is 368 fathoms its greatest depth, and 1089 feet above the level of the sea. It is divided into the Zell, or lower, and the Bregentz, or upper lake. Several rivers flow into it; e. g. the Rhine, which enters it at Rhemeck, and issues from it at Stem ; also the Bregentz, the Argen, the Schüssen, and four streams which bear the name of Aach. It contains the islands of Landau, Reachenau, and Memau. It has 73 kinds of marsh birds and water fowl. 20 kinds of shell fish, and 26 kinds of other fish, among which is the salmontrout. The trade and commerce of the lake are inconsiderable, on account of the falls of the Rhine at Schaffhausen, and are confined to grain, salt, and lake wine, as the wine there made is called. lake has not been frozen over since 1695, In 1824, steam-boat navigation was commenced on this lake.

Constance; capital of the Seekreis (Circle of the Lake), in the grand-duchy of Baden, on the lake of Constance, or Boden where the Rhine unites the upper part of the lake with the lower; lat. 47° 30' 10" N., and lon. 9° 8' E. The city and its two suburbs, connected by a bridgeover the Rhine, are partially fortified, and very extensive, considering the small number of inhabitants (4500). The ancient episcopal rendence and the cathedral contain beautiful monuments of Gothic architecture. Constance is memorable for the council of 1414-18. The German emperor, the pope, 26 princes, 140 counts, anore than 20 cardinals, 7 patriarchs, 20 archbishops, 91 bishops, 600 other clerical dignitaries and doctors, and about 4000 priests, were present at this ecclesiastical

assembly, which was occasioned by the divisions and contests about the affairs of the church. From 1305-77, the popes had resided at Avignon; but, in 1378, Gregory XI removed the papal seat back to Rome. After his death, the French and Italian cardinals could not agree upon a successor, and so each party chose its This led to a schism own candidate. which lasted 40 years. Indeed, when the emperor Sigismund ascended the throne, in 1411, there were three popes, each of whom had anathematized the two others. (See Antipope). To put an end to these disorders, and to stop the diffusion of the doctrines of Huss, Sigismund went in person to Italy, France, Spain and England, and (as the emperor Maximilian I used to say in jest, performing the part' of the beadle of the Roman empire) summoned a general council. The pretended heresies of Wickliffe and Huss were here condemned, and the latter, notwithstanding the assurances of safety given him by the emperor, was burnt, July 6, 1415; and his friend and companion, Jerome of Prague, met with the same fate, May 30, 1416. After the ecclesiastical dignitaries supposed they had sufficiently checked the progress of heresy by these executions, they proceeded to depose the three popes-John XXII (also called XXIII), Gregory XII and Benedict XIII. John, who was present at the council, was forced to consent to his own removal. He escaped. indeed, with the aid of Frederic, duke of Austria, who was excommunicated and put under the ban of the empire for rendering him assistance, and also lost a large part of his territory. But Frederic at last yielded, delivered John up to the council, and allowed him to be imprisoned. The former pope now gladly received the humbler office of a cardinal. Gregory XII experienced a similar loss of dignity. Benedict XIII, in Spam, retained, for some time, the name of pope, but was little noticed. Martin V, on the contrary, was legally chosen to the chair of St. Peter. Sigismund now thought a complete reformation might be effected in the affairs of the church; but, the new pape having retired to Italy against the emperor's will, the assembly was dissolved, and his object was not attained. It was first accomplished at the council of Basil. (q. v.) Travellers are still shown the hall where the council assembled (now occupied as a market-house); the chairs on which sat the emperor and the pope; the house where Huss was apprehended, and where his. bust is still to be seen; his dungeon, in the

Dominican monastery; his statue, which serves as a support to the cathedral; and, in the nave of the church, a brazen plate on the spot where the venerable martyr listened to his sentence of death; also the place, in a garden, where he was burnt. After the council had been convinced of the heresy of Huss, the bishop of Concordia read, in the cathedral, the sentence, that his books should first be burnt, and that he, as a public and scandalous heretic, and an evil and obstinate man, should be disgracefully deprived of his priestly dignity, degraded and excommunicated. The sentence was immediately executed, and began with the degradation. The bishop of Milan and six other bishops led Huse to a table where lay the garments used in the mass, and the other raiment of the priests: they clothed him with them, and, when he was in full dress, with the cup in his hand, the bishops once more called upon him to save his life and honor, and to abjure his opinions. Huss refused, and spoke to the people from the scaffold. After he had spoken, the bishops cried out to him, "Descend from the seaffold." The bishop of Milan and another bishop now took the cup, saying, "O Huss, we take from thee the cup in which was offered the blood of Christ; thou art not worthy of him." The other bishops then came forward, and erch one took off some part of the priestly apparel, with the same speech. When they had finished with the clothes, they scraped his shaven crown (to designate the removal of the oil of consecration). Finally when the excommunication was ended, they placed upon his head a paper crown, nearly a yard high, with devils painted upon it, and the inscription, "John Huss, arch-hereuc." The bishops now turned to the emperor, and said, "The noly council of Constance now surrenders to the temporal power and tribunal John Huss, who has no longer office or dignity in the church of God."\* The emperor arose, and took Huss, and said to the palatine Louis, "As we, dear cousin and prince, wear the temporal sword, take this John Huss, and have him punished as becomes a heretic." Louis laid down his princely ornaments, and led Huss to the". provost of Constance, to whom he said, "Upon the sentence of our gracious lord,

\* The Catholic clergy have always maintained that they cannot be concerned in the shedding of blood, being prohibited from so doing by the ecclesiastical law, so that a priest cannot even be a surgeon. On this ground, the inquisition professes never to have taken away life, all that it has slone is to deliver up culprits to be dealt with by the secular power.

## CONSTANCE CONSTANT DE REBECQUE.

Huss was burnt.

CONSTANCE FALCON, OF PHAULEON; & political adventurer of the 17th century, . whose proper name was Constantin. was born in the island of Cephalonia. His mother was a Greek. At the age of went to the East Indies. Having gained, fire of his orations. This caused his elecsome property in the service of the company, he undertook a trading voyage to the coast of Malabar. He was shipwrecked, and lost every thing; but, meeting with an ambassador from the king of Siam to Persia, who had suffered the same misfortune, he procured a bark, and conveyed the Siamese envoy to his own country. The latter recommended Constance to the barcalon, or prime manster, who took han into his service. On the death of his master, the king offered him the same post, which he accordingly accepted. He undertook the project of introducing Christianity among the Stamese, and induced the king of Siam to send an embassy to Louis XIV. The amba-satlors , died on their route; but the French monarch, hearing of the scheme, sent two envoys, with some Jesuits, to Siam. French troops were also introduced into the coun-These circumstances aroused the jealousy of the native princes and nobility, the result of which was a conspiracy, which terminated in the dethionement of the kmg, and the death of Constance, who was beheaded.

Constant de Rebreque, Benjamm de ; born at Lausanne, \$767; one of the most distinguished authors and greatest orators of the liberals or constitutionalists, on the \* left side of the French chamber of deputies; son of a general in the Dutch service, who had retired into his native country. French Switzerland, and commanded the militia there. The first of the family, Augustin Constant de Rebecque, quitted France, in 1605, and went to Geneva. The father of Benjamin Constant removed to France in 1791, and died, in 1812, a renatu- rahzed citizen. The subject of this article was educated in the Carolinum, at Brunswick, in Germany, and, at a later period, studied the law. He subsequently accepted employments at the court of Brunswick, which, however, did not confine him there, for he resided partly in Paris, and partly in the Pays de Vaux, until he finally fixed his residence entirely in France. At the beginning of the revolution, he went

the Roman emperor, and our special or- to Paris, conducted, before the council of der, take this master Huss, and burn him the five hundred, the cause of his country. as a heretic." The governor gave him to men who had been expelled by the repeal the executioner and his attendants, and of the edict of Nantes, and soon distinguished himself by several works upon politics and revolutionary subjects, while he studled the German language and literature. With equal courage and sternness of purpose, he opposed anarchy and despotism. As a member of the cercle constitutionnel, 12, he embarked for England, whence he in 1797, he distinguished himself by the tion to the office of tribune, in which capacity he brought every power into action, to maintain the equality of citizens. the representative system, the freedom of the press, and the regular administration of justice. He was the principal cause of the election of Talleyrand to the office of minister of foreign affairs, by the directory, in 1797. His speeches and writings rendered him odious to the first consul, and he was, consequently, dismissed from his station in 1802. Similarity of sentiments connected him with madame de Stael; and with her be trayelled through several countries, till Napoleon permitted him to return to Paris for a limited period. He then went to Gottingen, and employed himself principally in the study of German literature, and in preparing a work on the history of different modes of worship. He again appeared at Paris in 1814, in the retinue of the crown-prince of Sweden, and publicly showed himself zealous for the cause of the Bourbons, particularly in March, 1815, by the violent articles which he published in the Journal des De-Notwithstanding this, however, he suffered hinself to be elected counsellor of state by Napoleon, and assisted in forming the constitution of the Champ de Mai, which he defended warmly in many writings. On the return of the king, he went to Brussels. In November, 1816, he was permitted to return to Paris. In 1819, he was elected a menther of the chamber of deputies. As an orator, he is one of the most clear and eloquent defenders of the Charte; and of constitutional principles; but his voice is indistinct, and his speech hasty; nor has he that powerful expression which carries away the hearer. In general, he writes better than he speaks; but no one knows better how to take advantage of any opportunities afforded by his opponents. He unites to great power of reasoning a fine irony, elegance of expression, and a pleasing style, so that, without overstepping the bounds of courtesy, he entirely discomfits his antagonists. He has, also, the art of justly timing his cuthu-,

He was particularly admired in de l'Intérieur en Faveur du Projet de Loi sur laws of exception, and against the alteration of the law of election. In his famous pemphlet Des Motifs qui ont dicté le Nouveau Projet de Loi sur les Elections (Paris, 1820), he considers the new law in the light of a victory of the party of the old nobility, not only over the liberals, but also over the interests of the nation, the ministry, and the king personally. likewise gives vivid portraits of the duke French, and adapted it for the stage. Decazes, and the duke de Richelieu. With this spirit, he has always been one of the leading characters of the opposition; but his resistance to the administration has become more violent and butter since the taws of 1822, which deprived the jury of the right to decide in cases of offences. against the press, and subjected periodicals to the strict surveillance of the police. He and his friends have refused to vote several times during the last session, and Benjamin Constant has availed himself of every opportunity to pass from the subject in question to general accusations of the whole prevailing system of government. Amongst the speeches in which he proves the danger to the state, if the aristocracy should, by means of the new laws, gain ascendency, the one, in particular, discussing the police regulations in regard to periodicals, deserves to be named; likewise his speech of March 13, 1822, on the occasion of opening the budget, in which he attacks the whole system of administration, and expresses hunself decidedly against the existing law of election, the missionaries, and the ministry in general. His works are distinguished by perspicuity and liveliness of style, richness of imagination, and often by depth of knowledge. and acute observation, although he cannot' entirely divest himself of his propersity, for declamation, witticisms and sophisms. As early as 1796, he excited attention by his work De la Force du Gouvernement actuel de la France, &c.; agam, in 1797, by Des Réactions Politiques, and Des Effets de la Terreur. In 1800, he wrote Suites de la Contre-Révolution de 1600 en Angle-The following essays are much esteemed :- De l'Esprit de Conquete et de l'Usurpation dans leurs Rapports avec la Civilisation Européenne (1814); De la Liberté des Brochures, des Pamphlets et des Journaux, sous le Rapport de l'Intérêt du Gouvernement (1814); Réflerions sur les Constitutions, la Distribution des Pouvoirs, et les Garanties dans une Monarchie Constitutionnelle (1814); Observations sur le Discours prononcé par S. E. le Ministre

the debate in which he spoke against the la Liberte de la Presse (1814); De la Responsibilité des Ministres (1815); Principes de Politique applicables à tous les Gou-vernement représentatifs et particulièrement à la Constitution actuelle de la France (1815); Principes du Droit Public (1815); and De la Religion considérée dans sa Source, ses . Formes et ses Développemens, (Paris, 1824, 2 vols.). Besides these works, he has translated Schiller's Wallenstein into the election of the chamber, in 1824, he was again chosen deputy, and, after a long dispute, at last acknowledged as a French citizen. A brother of Benjamin, Jean Victor, baron of Constant de Rebecque, born at Geneva, Sept. 22, 1773, lieutenant-general in the service of the Netherlands, served in the French army till 1792, and, after 1793, under the hereditary prince of Orange, at present king of the Netherlands, in the army of the allies: he entered the British service in 1795, and the Prussian service in 1798. The king of Prussia made him governor to the prince of Orange in 1805, whom he accompanied in the campaign in Spain, in 1811. In 1814, he fought in the Netherlands, and distinguished himself at the siege of Bergen-op-Zoom, at Quatrebras and Waterloo.

Constantia; a village of the colony of the cape of Good Hope, between Table . bay and False bay, 5 leagues from the cape. It is celebrated for its wine, made from vines brought originally from Persia and the Rhme: 200 tons of this wine are annually made.

CONSTANTINE. Caius Flavius Valerius Aurelius Claudius Constantine, surnamed the Great, son of the emperor Constantius Chlorus and of his wife Helena, was born A. D. 274. When Constantine's father was associated in the government by Diocletian, the son was retained at court as a hostage, but was educated. with the greatest care. After Diocletan and Maximian Hercules had laid down the reins of government, Constantine fled to Britain, to his father, to escape the machinations of Galerius After the death of his father, he was chosen emperor by the soldiery, in the year 306. Galerius was very unwilling to allow him the title of Augustus, and gave him that of Casar only. Constantine, however, took possession of the countries which had been subject to his father, viz., Gaul, Spain and Britain. He overcame the Franks, who had formerly overrun the territory of Gaul, made prisoners of two of their leaders, followed them over the Rhine, sur-

prised and defeated them. He then directed his arms against Maxentius, who had joined Maximian against him. In the campaign in Italy, he saw, it is said, a flaming cross in the heavens, beneath the sun, bearing the inscription, "In hoc signo vinces? (Under this sign thou shalt conquer). In the following night, Christ' himself appeared to him, and commanded . him to take for his standard an imitation accordingly caused a standard to be made in this form, which was called the laberum. Some days after this (Oct. 27, 312); he vanquished the army of Maxentius, under the walls of Rome, and drove it into the Tiber. He then entered the city in triumph, set at liberty all whom Maxentius had unjustly imprisoned, and pardoned all who had taken up arms against him. He was declared by the senate chief Augustus and pontifex maximus. In the year 313, together with Licinius, he published the memorable edict of toleration, in favor of the Christians. By this, every one was allowed to embrace the religion most agreeable to his own mode of thinking, and all the property was restored to the Christians, that had been taken from them during the persecutions. They were also rnade eligible to public offices. edict marks the period of the triumph of the cross and the downfall of paganism. · Constantine had married his daughter to Licinius; but the latter, jealous of his fame, conceived a mortal hatred against him, which he displayed by persecuting the Christians. Both emperors took up arms, and met in Pannonia, A. D. 314. Constantine, surrounded by bishops and priests, besought the assistance of the God of the Christians; while Licinius, calling upon his soothsayers and 'magicians, relied upon the protection of their Licinius was defeated, but the conqueror granted him peace. He, however, renewed hostilities, was vanquished again, taken prisoner, and put to deatheat Constantine's command. Thus the latter became, in 325, the sole head of the Eastern and Western empires. His first and . rhief cares were the establishment of peace and order, and the propagation of his religion. Many beneficial decrees were proclaimed by him. Among these were those which abolished all the estab-· lishments of debauchery, ordered the children of the poor to be supported at his expense, gave permission to complain of his officers, and promised that the emperor would not only hear complaints, but
compensate the complaints for injuries legions which had occupied the frontiers;
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rectived, which they ware proved to exist. He diminished the land-taxerous quarter. and, to secure a fair distribution of them. he cathed a new valuation of catates to be taken. The state treasury had always been enriched by the property of crimi-, nals,; but Constantine spared the property of their wives, and ameliorated the condition of their children. Death in prison. he said, was a cruel punishment for the of the fiery cross which he had seen. He 'innocent, and an insufficient penalty for the guilty; he therefore ordered all trials of prisoners to take place at once. He forbade the use of unwholesome dungeons and oppressive chains. The reason which he assigned was, that it was his duty to secure the person of the accused, but not to injure him. He gave leave to sick persons, widows and orphans, to apneal from the local magistrates, and refused this privilege to their adversaries. It had been customary for the heirs of a person deceased to divide his slaves. among them; Constantine forbade the separation, in these cases, of husbands from their wives, and of parents from their children. Divorces had been very common among the Romans, but he made them much more difficult. To the Christians he gave permission, not only to erect churches, but to be remunerated, for the cost of them, from his domains. Amidst all the cares of government and the occupations of war, he found leisure. to assemble the council of Arles, to put an end to the schism of the Donatists. orcumenical council, held at Nice, in Bithynia (q. v.), A. D. 325, was attended by him in person. Nov. 26, 329, he laid the foundations of a new capital of the empure, at Byzantium, upon the Bosphorus, in Thrace. The city of Byzantium had been almost entirely destroyed by Severus; it was rebuilt by Constantine, enlarged, and adorned with open squares, fountains, a circus and palaces, and called by his own name. Highly favored by nature, it soon rivalled Rome herself. All the wealth of the empire was collected in the East; thither the nations poured their tribute and their trade; and Rome, the anoient mistress of the world, sunk from her supremary. Constantine divided the empire into four pasts, which were governed by four pretorian prefects. These four parts contained 13 dioceses, each under the direction of a vicar, and the dioceses comprised 117 provinces. Constantine contributed to bring much evil

were, dispersed in the provinces. To do to describe the character, influence and wards the close of his life, he favored the policy of Constantine, from the Arisin, to which he was induced by Eucentrol his researches and the profoundabline of Micomedia; and he even bing mass of his views, appears to deserve the historia. In the first relates. belian of Ricomedia; and he even han increase of his views, appears to deserve the hiped many Catholic bishops. In the first piece, year 387, he fell sick in the neighborhood. Constantine, grand-prince of Rustof Ricomedia, was, baptized, and died sia. Constantine Casarovitch Paulomedia, a reign of 31 years. Constantine vitch, grand-prince of Russia, and second committed a great political error in divid-, son of Paul I, was born May 9, 1779. ing his empire among his three sons, Constantine, Constantius and Constans. The condemnation of his son Crispus. who had been falsely accused by his stepmother of an attempt to seduce her, has always been considered a stain on his pears to have been excited not less by the knowledge, that the religion which was embraced by a majority of the inhabitants of the Roman empire must prevail, and that, of course, the strength of the government must be increased by protecting it, than by a wish to apply its consoling powers to the relief of a heavy conscience. He has been accused of inordinate ambition, excessive liberality, and an Oriental fondness for parade. But he was brave at the head of his army, mild and indulcent in his intercourse with his subjects, the favorite of his people, the terror of his foes. In the year 332, he fought successfully against the Goths, who had already experienced his power. His eldest son gained many victories over them, and about 100,000 of the enemy perished by the sword or by hunger. Constantine made use of his advantages only to grant them a favorable peace, upon terms equally beneficial to himself. He took this opportunity to rid his empire of a disgraceful tribute, which his predecessors had paid to these harbarians, and to secure his frontier upon the Danube. The Sarmatians, who had been expelled their country by the slaves whom they had injudiciously armed against the Goths, and who took refuge in his donnnions, he provided with lands in Thrace, Lesser Scythia, Macedonia, and in Italy itself. He even resolved, in his 56th year, and but a short time before his death, to take the field against the Persians. He was fond of the sciences, as well as of arms, and gave them his protection. He read much, and wrote nearly all his own lettern. In Eusebius we find many proofs of his theological learning. Some of the martyrologists have counted him among the saints, and fix the 20th of May as his festival. The Greeks and Russians observe it upon the 21st of the same month. Among all the writers who have attempt-3.4

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The characteristics of this prince are, activity, energy, a rudeness often bordering, upon barbarity, and a degree of personal ocurage approaching to rashness. In 1799, he distinguished himself, under Suwarroff, both as a soldier and a commemory. His zeal for Christianity ap- mander. Paul I bestowed upon him the title Casarovitch as a reward for his services. At Austerlitz, in 1805, he distinguished himself by his bravery, at the head of the guards, after he had been betrayed, by his courage, into a too hasty advance. In 1812, 13 and 14, he attended his brother, the emperor Alexander, in all his campaigns. He appeared at the congress of Vienna, and received from the emperor Francis' the command of a regiment of cuirassiers. He was afterwards employed in superintending the affairs of the new kingdom of Poland. He was then successively made military governor and generalissimo of the Polish troops, and was present, as a deputy, at the last diet. He resided at Warsaw in great splendor. By an imperial ukase of April 2, 1820, he was divorced from his wife, a princess of Coburg, who resides in Switzerland, and was married, May 24, 1820, by permission of the emperor, to a Polish countess, Johanna Grudzinska, who was afterwards honored with the title of princess of Lquicz, from the name of some estates in Mosovia, which were bestowed upon the grand-prince. The title was to descend to the children of the marriage. Before this marriage took place, it was decreed, by an imperial ukase, that the children of princes, who were not related, by the mother's side, to any reigning house, should have no claims to the throne of Russia, in any case whatever. The prince had, during the life-time of his brother Alexander, renounced, in a secret instrument, dated Jan. 14, 1822, all pretensions to the throne; notwithstanding which he was proclaimed emperor, at Petersburg, in his absence, upon the decease of his brother, in Dec., 1825; but, as he preferred to adhere to his renunciation, his younger brother, Nicholas, becames successor to Alexander. The grand-prince was present at the coronation of his brother, at. Moscow, Sept. 3, 1826. In 1829, the

CONSTANTINE COLUMN. (See Column.)
CONSTANTINOPLE (the city of Constantine), called, by the Oriental nations, Constantinia, by the Turks, Istambol (that is, "into the city"), by the Walachians and Bulgarian's, Zaregrad (royal city), was built, by Constantine the Great, on the site of the city of Byzantium, consecrated in the year 330, and named, from him. It was, till the year 1453, the capital and residence of the emperors of the Fast, and has been, since that thine, the capital of the Turkish sultans. This city has been besieged 24 times, but taken only 6, viz., by Alcibiades, Severus, Constantine, Dandolo, Michael Palæologus, and Mohammed. It lies in the government of Rumelia (Rom-Ili), on the sea of Marmora, and at the south-western opening of the Thracian Bosphorus, which separates, Europe from Asia. It has a large and safe harbor. The interior of the city but ill corresponds to its noble amphitheatrical site and the splendor of its mosques and palaces. The streets are generally narrow, dirty and steep; the houses, for the most part, low, and built of mud and wood. There is also a great want of open squares. The largest open space is the Atmeidan, which is 250 paces long, 150 broad, and ornamented with an obelisk of granite 60 feet in height. The air is healthy; but from the neglect of all precautionary measures, the plague is brought hither from Egypt almost every year. The heat of summer is moderated by the winds from the Black sea; but these winds often produce a change from heat to cold, which is very unpleasant. The city, without including the suburbs, is about 11 or 12 miles in circumference. Including the suburbs, it is about 55 miles in circuit. The number of inhabitants in the city and suburbs is estimated, by Von Hammer, at 630,000; by others, at 1,000,000, of whom over 200,000 are Greeks, more than 40,000 Armenian Christians, more than 60,000 Jews, and the remainder Turks. Before the last great fire, the city contained 80,000 houses. It has the form of a triangle, with bent sides and an obtuse angle at the vertex. This vertex borders

grand-prince retired from Warsew, where upon the mailer. He mails upon the harbest, and the much information, which had little to distinguish it harbest, and the sough thouse of the but the rude and savage character of the triangle, toward the main land, is the ruler. Whether this retirement is in longest of the three sides, and extends in consequence of a disagreement between a somewhat curved direction, from the him and his brother, the emperor, is not harber to the sea of filternors, upon the precisely known. It is said, that Constantine will live, in future, in some place on the sea, and while, the wall, is the fortreet of the Seven Towers. It included ed, at first 7, afterwards 8 towers, of which 4 were destroyed by an earthquake in 1754, and 1 in 1766. In the quarter be-longing to the amenal, which extends around upon the outside of the fresh water canal, are reckoned some portions of the city, which extend towards Galain. They are comprehended under the name of Kassum Puschi. Here are the residence of the capudan pacha, the arsenal, the navy-yard, and the prison of the galleys. Not far from this is the bagnio, or prison of the royal slaves, who are cruelly kept at hard labor in this swampy place. The sub-urb of Galata, surrounded by a wall of its own, lies opposite the seraglio, upon the harbor or strait which comes from the Black sca, is of considerable size, contains many. large houses, and is the residence of the European merchants. Still farther, upon the straits, lies Tophana, which derives its name from the cannor-foundery. Upon the heights opposite Galata and Tophana lies the suburb of Pera, in which the European ambassadors reside. Not far from this is the open burying-place, for Europeans; and upon the heights just hy is the suburb of St. Demetrins, inhabited, for the most part, by Greeks. If you sail towards the Asiatic side, you find, in the middle of the strait, upon a rock, the town of Leander, which is a sort of fortress and prison, and has some cannon. Beyond it lies the suburb of Scutari, also of considerable magnitude. The fortifications of Constantinople are unimportant. A wall, provided with 548 towers, partly of stone and partly of brick, which, towards the land, is double, and bordered by a broad ditch, surrounds the whole city. Upon the side towards the land, there are 6 gates; upon the sea of Marmora, 7; and as many as 13 upon the harbor, besides numerous smaller ones. The suburbs are, for the most part, open; but some are surrounded by old walls, built by the Greeks and Genoese. The built by the Greeks and Genoese. seraglio (q. v.) is a collection of dwellings baths, mosques, kiosks, gardens and garas of cypress. To distinguish it from ther, palaces, the Turks call it the Padigainst rai, or imperial palace. To the al coun-

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of it lie the gulf of Nice, the construction, penulisator from the sulfate. The cupple and especially Scatari; towards the north- is supported by pillars covered with marof it is the guir of Nice, the cost of asia, and emecially Scattari; towards the norththe straits of Constantinople, and the title city by itself, and is surrounded by a high wall, which is guarded by cannon upon the side towards the strait. These are discharged during the walks of the sultan, and also to celchrate occasions of public rejoicing. Single discharges indicate the execution of state-oriminals within the walls of the scraglio. The chief entrance, before which, upon the one side, is the ancient church of St. Sophia, and upon the other a beautiful fountain, opens into the first court, which is uregular and hadly paved, having on its left the mint, and on its right the stables, together with a large hospital, and other buildings. Here is also the royal mesque. At the distance of about 1000 paces from the outer gate is the second. It is, like the first, guarded by capidschis, and leads to a second court, smaller, but more elegant , than the first. The edifices by which it is surrounded are not of uniform sieight, In the centre of the court is a beautiful fountain, surrounded by cypresses and wild mulberry-trees. The most important of the edifices comprised in this court is the divan. To this succeeds the third court, into which Turks only are admitted, and none, even of these, who do not belong to the court, or are not especially commanded to enter. The ambassadors pass, by a covered way, from the divan to the audience-chamber of the sidtan, which is in the real wragho, and is a splendid apartment, although small and dark. Beyond this lie the apartments of the sultan and his wives, into which it is not allowable to enter. Externally are 'discoverable a number of large, irregular edifices, which see surmounted by cupohas covered with lead. Besides this chief scraglio, there is also, in the centre of the city, the Eski Scrai, built by Moleammed II, in which are shut up the wices and slaves of the deceased sultans, who have, however, the privilege of marrying and leaving it, if they choose. The nunher of dechamis and mosques in Constantinople amounts to near 500. Among these, the oldest and most remarkable is former church of St. Sophia, founded stinian, which is 270 feet in length by serve breadth. No one, who is not a Ambag an, can enter this without express

hended 8 half cupolas. The floor is covwith the terraces on the side of the bills rich carpets. From without, nothing is opposite to it. With its garden, it forms a discernible but unsightly masses of building; the various irregular parts, of which it is composed, have no symmetry; the dome alone rises majestically above it. The 4 minarets, which were added by Selim II, stand insulated, have each a difforent form, and resemble Gothic towers. Next to this in celebrity, are the mosques of Selim, Mahmoud, Achmet, Soliman, the sultana Valide, the mother of Mohammed VI, and of Bujuzet. There are 5000 cratories (metscheds), besides 23 Greek, 3 Armenian, 1 Russian, and 9 Catholic churches; 130 public baths; 11 academies, in which 1600 young Turks are educated at the sultan's expense, for the future service of the church and state; 518 high establishments for education (medress), in which the pupils are supported and instructed gratis: 1300 children's schools; 13 public libraries, none of which, however, contains over 2000 maduscripts, and none any printed books. There are, also, and are, in part, ornamented with colon- many caravansaries; a rethematical and nautical school; Turkish, Jewish and Armenian printing-offices; and a great number of coffee-houses, ornamented in the Chanese style, and singularly painted, in which people of all classes mix together. many of whom smoke, in the course of the day, 30 or 40 pipes of tobacco, and drink. as many cups of coffee. To the class of public houses belong, also, the teriak-hane, or opium:-booths, where the guests generally assemble in the ewning, chew their pit!s of opium, drink a glass of cold water, and await the into vicating results. The manufactories supply morocco, cotton, silk and linen cloths, carpets, harness, pocketbooks, arms of various sorts (including bows and arrows), gold, silver, and enbroidery. There is no want of dyer-, stone-cutters, jewbliers, &c. Trade is chiefly conducted in the khans and bezars. In the latter are to be found merchants from all parts of the Turkish deminions. These bazars are large buildings of stone. One of them, the Misr chartsche, or Egyptian market, contains goods from Cairo, especially minerals and medicines. Other parts of the bazar are occupied by jewellers and booksellers, who keep for sale Turkish, Persian and Arabian manuscripts. For the most part, particular articles are to be found in particular streets: thus the dealers in furs, the shoe-makers,

and pipe-makers have each their own chaps and round his seed, at wom as his streets. The bazars will well repay the ablation is completed, and he returns into trouble of visiting them. Two hieges, or the situed amount, appointed by the government, round where a clean bed is special dressing superintend the management of these repairs accompanied by a hixarious sensition of order committed within the walls. The repose, hardly concavable by those who buildings are all fire-proof, and are the have not enjoyed, it. Skainpoing is selected whose who have not wallable property, and where sales case of women a short time after confineused for the retail trade. These are an immence assemblage of shops, where all the different trades are carried on, and almost every thing requisite for food, clothing or furniture may be purchased. These endless rows of stalls along each side of a covered street, wherein the article is often manufactured as well as sold, present a constant succession of novel objects, and the motley throng of purchasers is amusing and instructive. Sedate Turks, saturnine Amienians, swaggering Ghulivonjis, saucy Franks, thin-bearded Arabs, Bostanjis, with their long-tailed scarlet caps, dervishes, crowned with dirty caps, that look like extinguishers, are all crowded together, each driving his own bargain, and betraying, by his physiognomy and gestures, the characteristics of his calling, Constantinople, benation and habits. sides the many splendid and spacious mosques with which it is adorned, can boast of hospitals, alms-houses, schools, colleges and public librasies, such as rival the rich institutions founded by the caliphs of Bagdad and Cairo, and surpass any now existing in other parts of the Mohammedan world. The Turkish baths contain three spacious apartments, one within the other, paved with marble and lighted by holes in the dome above, filled with colored glass. In the first chamber, the attendants prepare the linen and other articles used by the bathers. In the second, the visitors undress, and fasten round their waists a thin covering, which hangs down to the ankles. They then enter the third room with high wooden clogs on their feet, to protect them from the floor, which is heated by vapors from a caldron immediately beneath. The bather

most valuable property, and where sales case of women a short time after confine-by auction, are held. The charshis are ment. Among the European nations, ment. Among the European nations, the Italians, Russians, English and French (all called Franks) are those which trade here the most. In the neighborhood of Constantinople lie Eyoub, a town, or, rather, a suburb of the city, with a mosque, in which the new sultan is publicly gird with his sword, which is equivalent to the ceremony of coronation; Buyukdere (q. v.), Belgrade, formerly the residence of the ambassadors in summer, but at present described, on account of the unwholesomeness of the air; Fondukli, with a fortress; Dulmach Backtsche (the garden of melons); an imperial palace, in the Chinese style; Beschicktasch, a town containing an imperial summer palace, a great part of which was burnt in 1816. A panofama of the city, taken upon the spot by Prévot, was exhibited in Paris, in-1825, by Romay. (See Dardanelles.)

CONSTANTINOPLE. GENERAL COUNCILS or. These include the second, fifth, sixth, the Trullan and the seventh. The second was convoked by Theodosius the' Great, in 381; to put down the enemies of the Nicene creed (see Creeds), who had already been restrained by his decrees. 150 Oriental bishops, assembled for that purpose, condemned the Arians of all parties, together with other heretics, and, in a supplement to the creed above-mentioned. they decided that equal honor was due-to the Holy Ghost as to the Father and the Son, with a view of recalling to the orthodox faith the Macedonians or Pneumatomachists, who had adopted the Arian doctrine of the inferiority of the Holy Spirit. These, however, separated from the council, and suffered themselves to be declared. heretics. The ordinances of this council made the bishop of Constantinople next in rank to the bishop of Rome, and committed the disputes of their bishops to the decision of the emperor. Theodosius confirmed the decrees of the council, and even procured them authority in the West. The Greek church took advantage of the circumstance that the Holy Ghost was declared to proceed only from the Father, to set up their claims to orthodoxy against the Catholics. The fifth general coun-

thrown over the bather, and a handker-

is stretched out upon a raised platform,

and the attendant scours him well with cold and warm water, rubbing him with

keffeh-kil, a perfumed saponaceous earth.

Numbers of persons of the same sex bathe

together, but every thing is conducted

with the strictest regard to decency. The

baths are open to women in the day-time, and to men at night. A clean shirt is

the trief held, by the emperor Justinian, and the three chapters were there. us, who were suspected of Nostorianism, and declared heretics by the council. The 165 bishops, nearly all from the East, who were assembled at this meeting, excluded From their communion the Roman bishop Virgilius, who would not unconditionally condemn tife three chapters, and with him many divines, even some that were dead; for example, Origen. They were only the contemptible organs of the scheless zeal. of Justinian. The sixth council, held in 680, by the order of the emperor Constantine, in the Trullan palace (so called on account of its vaulted roof), by 166 bish-pps, of whom the legate of the Roman histop Agatho had the greatest influence, condenmed the doctrines of the Monothelites, and declared their leaders heretics. Rejecting the Bible and reason, they proved, from the fathers, that Christ acted not merely with one will, which the Monothelites maintained, but with both a divine and a human will, in accordance with his 'two natures. Among the contemmed Monothclites was Honorius, the predecessor of Agatho. As these two councils , made no new etclesiastical laws, the emperor Justinian II. m (3·2. again summoned a general council, which, from the purpose of the meeting to supply the defects of the fifth and sixth, was called the quiniscrta, and, because it was held again in the Trullan palace, the Trallan conneil; but it is not numbered among the councils of Constantinople. It confirmed the decrees of the previous sessions, and irstituted rigid laws for the clergy: among them were those fixing the rank of the patriarchs and the permission of marriage to priests, which were so offense e to the Latin church, that she rejected all the decrees of this council; but, in the Grock church, they are still valid. The seventh ecclesiastical council, which was held, in 754, in Constantinople, by 358 bishops, was not attended nor acknowledged by the Latin clergy. This council condemned, with the utmost severity, the worshippers of images, many of whom were put to death in consequence. But the decrees of this council lost all their validity in consequence of the subsequent decrees of the council of Nice in 787. (See Iconoclasts).

CONSTRLLATIONS are the groups into which astronomers have divided the fixed stars, and which have received names for the convenience of description and reference.

The existing of the constellations is called saling may. The division of the stars into groups was begun in ancient times. It is doctrined, of the hishons Theodore of plain that the union of several stars into a Monaucsus, Theoloret, and Ibos of Edea consellation, to which the name of some animal person or inanimate object given, must be entirely arbitrary, since the several points (the stars) may be united in a hundred different ways, just as imagination directs; for instance, the best known of all the constellations, the Great Boar, or the Wain, might just as well be made to represent a great variety of other things, It is enough that astronomers know what is meant by a certain constellation, so as to understand each other. The division of the heavens into constellations is like the division of a classic into pages and paragraphs. Ludwig Ideler's Unitersuchung über den Ursprung und die Bedeu-tung der Sterhnamen, Berlin, 1809 (Inquiry into the Origin and Meaning of the Numes of the Stars, by Louis Ideler), is a work of great interest. The ancient divisions of the constellations have been retained by the moderns, with the addition of such as have been newly discovered. When and where the first constellations were formed is not known. It is very probable that some of the most remarkable collections of stars, such as Charles's Wain, the Pleiades, Orion, & c., were formed into constellations, and had names given them, in very early ages. Some of then, by their different appearances, serve to mark out the different seasons of the year, and, on that account, were not only considered use a kind of directory for the commencement of ploughing, sowing, and other operations of husbandry, but were also regarded as having a great influence on the temperature of the air, and the fertility of the earth. Hence, from their being signs, pointing out the times of the year when heat or cold, dryness or mossture, predominated, they were regarded as the causer of these states of the atmosphere. They were also imagined to have dominion over minerals, vegetables and annuals; over the complexions, constintions, and even the dispositions of man-This opinion obtained cridit the kind. more easily, as the sun, moon, planets, and stars were believed to be of a divine nature, insornuch that some persons conceived that they were inhabited by an inferior kind of deities, who governed their motions, and directed their influences; while others thought that they were anand others again supposed that they were animated by a part of the substance of the

Supreme Being. Each of these notions led mankind to pay them, a son of reli-gious worship. The Egyptians divided the heavens into several regions, which they called the stations or mankions of their gods. They worshipped the heaven dy bodies, and more especially the sun and moon, which they called their great gods, denominating the sun Osiris, and the moon Isis. They also imagined that they found in various animals some qualities corresponding to the inctions, appearances or influences of the sun, moon, and some . of the stars; hence they were induced not only to use those animals in their hiero-stellations in the southern hemisphere glyphic representations of their deities, but also to pay them divine honors, and denominate the constellations from them. The Greeks, who learned astronomy of the Egyptians, retained several of their, figures, as the ram, the bull, the dog, &c., but accommodated almost all of them to the fabulous history of their gods and heroes, whom they placed among the stars. The Romans imitated them, and the poets of both nations have given us wild and romantic fables about the origin of the constellations, probably derived from the hieroglyphics of the Egyptians, and transmitted, with some alterations, from them to the Greeks. Many of the figures that occur among our present constellations The names were originally Egyptum. which the Chinese and Japanese give to the groups of stars forming our constellations are very different from those which we have given them. Some Arabians, too, though they received their astronomy from the Greeks, changed the names of the constellations, from a superstitious notion, that it was unlawful to draw any humun figure. The zeal of some Christian philosophers has induced them to endeavor to drive the heathen deities and heroes from the skies. The venerable Bede gave the names of the twelve apostles to the twelve signs of the zodiac. Judas Schillerms, in 1627, completed the reformation, and gave Scripture names to all the fonstellations in the heavens. Weigehus, professor of mathematics in the university of Jena, made a new order of constellations, converting the firmament into a calum heraldicum, and introducing the arms of all the princes of Europe among the constellations. The more intelligent astronomers, however, never approved of innovation, because it tended to introduce confusion into the science. The old constellations, therefore, are, for the most part, still retained. Ptolemy enumerates, in his Almagest, forty-eight constellations, which

are still palled the Potential. They are the following:—I. The twelve signs of the zodific [see Ediptia]. 2. Twenty-one constellations found in the northern hemisphere—the Great Bear (Uran Major, the Wain), the Little Bear (Uran Misor, Perseus, the Dragon, Cepheus, Cassiopeia, Andromeda, Pegasus, Equilus (Horse's Head), the Triangle, the Wagoner (Aurigu), Bootea, the Northern Crown (Corona Borealis). Ophiukhus, the Sernent J. Borealis), Ophiukhus, the Serpent (Serpentarius), Hercules, the Arrow (Sagitta), the Lyre, the Swan (Cygnus), the Dolphin, the Eagle (Aquila). 3. Fifteen con-Orion, the Whale (Cetus), Eridanus, the Hare (Lepus), the Great Dog (Cunis Missior), the Little Dog (Cunis Minor), Hydra, the Cup (Crater), the Crow (Corvus), the Contaur, the Wolf (Lupus), the Altar (Are), the Southern Fish (Piscis Australis), the Argo, the Southern Grown (Corona Australia) tralis). The poets of antiquity very ingeniously connected the most popular fables... of mythology with the different constellations. Some of the constellations, however, have been changed; and even the ancients sometimes added new ones. such as the Hair of Berenice (Coma Berenices), and the Antinons. Much still remained for modern astronomers to do. Hevelus introduced the twelve following new constellations:-the Shield of Sobiesky, the Squirrel, Camelopardalus, the Sexuant, the Groyhounds, the Little Lion, the Lynx, the Fox and the Goose, the Lizard, the Little Triangle, Cerberus, and Mons Manalus. When the Europeans began to navigate the southern hemisphere, many new stars of course appeared to them, which they never had seen in Europe. Thus twelve new constellations, were added in the 16th century-the Intlians, Crane, Phænix, Fly, Southern Trangle, Bird of Paradise, Peacock, American Goose, Hydrus or Water-Snake, Sword-Fish, Flying-Fish, Chameleon. Halley, m 1675, during his stay at St. Helena, added the Royal Oak (Rober Carolinum); and Lacaille, in 1750, during his stay at the cape of Good Hope, added the fourteen following:-Officina Sculptoria, Fornax Chemica, Horologium, Reticulus Rhomboidalis, Equuleus Pictorius, Caela Praxitelis, Pyxis Nautica, Octans Hadleianus, Machina Pneumatica, Circinus (the Compass), Quadra Euclidis, Telescope, Microscope, and Table Mountain. To these have been added the Lapland Reindeer, the Hermit, the Brandenburg Sceptre, the Telescope of Herschel, the Shield of Poniatowsky, or Taurus Ponia-

toward, the Honor of Frederic, and others, which cannot well be enumerated here, as their names have not been sanotioned by all nations. Thus the professors of Leipsic made of a part of Orion the constellation of Napoleon, but it did not "come into use. The different stars of a constellation are marked by Greek letters. Several have also particular names. They are also divided according to their appar rent magnitude; thus we speak of stars of the first, second and third, up to the sixth magnitude. The last are the smallest visible, to the naked eye. One of the best works' on astrognosy, in the present state of this: science, is Bode's Anleitung zur Kenntniss des gestirnten Himmels, 9th ed. Berlin, 1823, with plates (Guide to the Knowledge of the Starry Heavens). On the subject of the constellations, and astrognosy of the ancients, the same author has written, in his Ptolemæus, Beobachtung und Beschrei- ` bung der Gestirne, Berlin, 1795 (Ptolemy, Observation and Description of the Stars). (For information respecting celestial globes, see Globe.)

Constituent Assembly; the first convention of the delegates of the French nation, (June 17, 1789), consisting of 600 deputies of the third estate, 300 of the nobility, and 300 of the clergy. The famous oath taken in the tennis court, June 20, 1789, not to dissolve until they had completed a constitution for their country, is one of the noblest displays of the spirit of a nation bent on recovering and secur-

ing its liberty. (See France.)

Constitution, in medicine; the general condition of the body, as evinced by the peculiarities in the performance of its functions: such are the peculiar predisposition to vertain diseases, or hability of particular organs to disease, the varieties in digestion in muscular power and motion, in sleep, in the appetite, &c. Some marked peculiarities of constitution are observed to be accompanied with certain external characters, such as a particular color and texture of the skin, and of the hair, and also with a peculiarity of form and disposition of mind; all of which have been observed from the earliest time, and divided into classes, and which received names, during the prevalence of the humoral pathology, that they still retain. (See Temperament.)

Constitution, in the Roman church; a decree of the pope in matters of doctrine. In France, however, this name has been applied, by way of eminence, to the famous buil Unigenitus. (q. v.)—Apostolic constitutions is the name given to

a collection of ecclesinatical laws and regulations escribed cironeously to Clement . Their contents betray a later origin. No father of the church, before the 4th century, mentions them. Epiphanius is the first who speaks of them as a genuine work of the apostles, though he does not pretend to deny the doubts which many persons entertained respecting their genuineness. The Trullan council (692) considcred only part of them genuine, and rejected the collection on account of the interpolations which it had experienced. Most probably this collection was made in the third century, and compounded of regu-. lations already existing, and others invented by the compiler, who was an adversary of the Gnostics. (q. v.) But it is still very dubious whether the collection, which we have at present under the above name, is the same mentioned by the fathers of the church. The Catholics themselves are suspicious of them. The Dictionnaire de Théologic says of them, Ces Constitutions prétendues apostoliques sentent, dans plusieurs endroits, l'Arianisme, renferment des anachronismes et des opinions singulures sur plusieurs points de la religion.

Constitution; the fundamental law of a state, whether it be a written instrument of a certain date, as that of the U. States, or an aggregate of laws and usages which have been formed in the course of ages, like the English constitution. I. Constitutious, according to their origin or their fundamental principle, may be divided into 3 classes:-1. those established by the sovereign power; 2. those formed by contracts between nations and certain individuals, whom they accept as sovereigns, on condition of their complying with the terms of the contract; 3, those formed by a compact between different sovereign powers. 1. The first class may be again divided into, a. constitutions established by a free sovereign people for their own regulation—the only ones which rest on a just and philosophical basis (although such as are embraced in the other descriptions may be the best which circumstances will allow in given cases); of this sort are the constitutions of the U. States; and, b. such as have been, in some instances, granted by the plenary power of absolute monarchs to their subjects, and which, in theory, are the voluntary gift of the benefi-cence of the ruler. These are called, by the French, constitutions octroyees, from ortroyer, to grant. Such an instrument is the French Charte, which commences with the words Nous avons volontairement et par libre exercice de notre autorité royale

of constitutions mentioned above includes between the future ruler and the people: These are mutually binding on each party, as long as the other fulfils his duty. Such, in a great degree, is the English constitu-" And a constitution octroyée partakes much of the nature of a compact, as soon as the people have sufficient spirit and sense of justice to prevent it from being infringed or abolished, and, asserting the natural rights of men, whose rulers exist only for their benefit, avow that they will submit to the government only as long as the government observes the constitution. In fact, a constitution octroyée, in any case, can hardly be regarded otherwise than as a compact, proceeding, as it does, from the wants of the times and the demands of the people, and expressing the intention of the ruler to observe certain rules, which these wants and demands prescribe. Where would be its value, how could it be regarded as a fundamental law, controlling the operations of the government, if it were liable to be abolished at any montent, at the pleasure of the sovereign? That the monarch acted from compulsion in granting the constitution, only proves that the character of the times made it indispensable. The French ultras are grievously mistaken, when they pretend that the king may abolish the Charte because he granted it. It is not the words . with which it is prefaced, but the circumstances under which it was given, that are to determine its character. It was granted to satisfy the demands of the I'rench people, and as a pledge for the security of their liberties; and as long as they hold to the grant, it is impossible for the ruler to recall it. Such a constitution, therefore, may be considered as resting virtually on a compact.\* 3. Some constitutions are compacts between several sovereign pow-Such was the constitution of the German empire, and that of the United

\* If we consider strictly the origin of the two great divisions of constitutions, we shall find that they all recognise the sovereignty of the people. They are, as we have said, established either by the people themselves, or by a contract between the people and their future ruler, or are granted by the ruler. In the first case, the constitution is a direct emanation from their sovereign power. the second case, it is no less so, for they confer the rights of sovereignty, which they could not do un-less they possessed them. In the third case, the constitution, as we have said, is virtually a compact, and, as such, recognises the independence of the contracting parties, and admits that the people, collectively, have no superior

accorde et accordons, fait concession et actroi. Provinces of Holland, and such is use the a nos sujets, &c., 2. The second great class. Swiss confederation. The constitution of the U. States of America, although the such as have been formed by a contract "different states call themselves sovereign, proceeded, in point of fact, from the people of the IL States collectively, as is apparent from the very beginning of the instrument, which is in these words-"We. the people of the U. States," and not "We, the states." Moreover, it can escape no one's observation, that the congress, established by this constitution, has rights and powers far exceeding those which other confederate, but entirely distinct govern-ments, are wont- to allow each other, and that the constitution, in short, unites all the states into one nation, the government being called, by all parties, the 'national government. Governments entirely and virtually distinct from each other never would, however closely confederated, allow a government, particularly a national government, to be established over themselves. It seems, therefore, that the constitution of the U. States is more than a mere compact between independent powers, yet less than the simple constitution of an undivided nation: it ought rather to be considered as forming one whole. with the different constitutions of the states, which have given up to the gen-t eral government most of the rights of 'sovereignty, as that of making war and peace, coining, &c.\* II. In regard to political principles, constitutions are, 1. democratic, when the fundamental law guaranties to every citizen equal rights, protection, and participation, direct or indi-... rect, in the government, such as the constitutions of the U. States, and of some cantons of Switzerland. 2. Aristocratic, when the constitution establishes privileged classes, as the nobility and clergy, and intrusts the government entirely to them, or allows them a very disproportionate share in it. Such a constitution was that of Venice, and such still are those of some

\* For more particular information respecting the constitution of the U States, we would refer the reader to the Federalist, the contemporaneous exreader to the Federalist, the contemporaneous exposition of this instrument, by some of the ablest men concerned in its preparation. The View of the Constitution of the U States of America, by William Rawle, Philadelphia, 1829, contains a hugd explanation of its principles, and has been, as well as the Federalist, introduced, as a text-book, into some of the American colleges. The Elementury Catechism of the Constitution of the Ci States, for the Use of Schools, by J. A. Stambury. Boston, 1828, exhibits the pinciples of the constitution in a way to make them easily intelligible, and would prove a useful guide to a fortelligible, and would prove a ustill guide to a forthe constitution, without the trouble of much study.

3. Of s cantons, for instance, Berne. a mixed character. To this latter division belong some monarchical constitutions, which recognise the existence of a king whose power is modified by other branches of government, of a more or less popular, rights to every citizen; and that constitucast. The English constitution belongs to this division. It has often been called a mixture of democracy, aristocracy and monarchy; but, in fact, even the representation of the commons of that country is, in a great measure, under the control of the privileged orders, so that the government falls, almost entirely, into the hands of the aristocracy, and little of the democratic element is visible. III. The forms of government, established by the various constitutions, afford a ground of division important in some respects; and, lastly, IV. The principle on which a constitution establishes the representation, or the way in which the people participate in the government, furnishes an important means of classification. 1. Some allow the people. to partake in the government, without representation. This is the case in several of the small Swiss cantons, in which the whole people assemble and legislate. It is obvious that such a constitution can operate only where the number of citizens is very small, and, even then, it will be, almost always, objectionable. 2. Some are of a representative character; that is, all the citizens do not take an unmediate part in the government, but act by their representatives. Constitutions of this sort, a. either establish a general and equal representation, as those of the U.Ftates; or, b. connect the right of representation with particular estates (q. v.) and corporations. The term representative constitution is frequently applied exclusively to the former by way of eminence. A, great desideratum, in these times of political agitation, is a digest of all constitutions, existing and abolished, a coder constitutionum, exhibiting all the different trials, which men have made, to provide for their permanent security and welfare. only attempt to execute such a work, as far as our knowledge extends, has been made in the German language-Die Europhischen Constitutionen, Leipsic, 1817. Though a great part of Europe is engaged in a controversy on the subject of constitutions .- the people desiring them, the governments resisting their wishes, and mercenary writers attacking and vilifying their advocates,-it would be ridiculous for us to enter into an argument in defence of the advantage and necessity of constitutions. since every one of our readers is convinced

that governments are instituted for the welfare of the people, and that the true wel-fare of pations is founded on liberty and justice; that liberty and justice imply restraints on rulers, and the security of his tions, therefore, are essential, as assigning to every branch of government its powers and limits, protecting against aggression, and ascertaining the purposes for which the government exists, and the rights\which are guarantied to every citizen. It would be, perhaps, interesting, if we had room enough, to give a sketch of the most celebrated argumouts against constitutions; but the substance of them amounts to this, that states and nations resemble families, the monarchs being in the place of the fathers; that the father of a family has a divine right to govern his family, and provide for his children, according to his discretion, and that a family would be in a most unfortunate condition, in which, to prevent quarrels and discontent, the father should be obliged to refer to a written instrument, in which the duties of every member of the household were laid down. The comparison of a state to a family has come to our times, from ages when the principles of government were little understood, when mankind was gaining political experience at a dear, rate, and when the whole subject of government was very ill defined, because the general principles of the subject, and the limitations of the different branches of the administration, were not, and, perhaps, could not be clearly understood. In regard to those times, the comparison of the head of a government to a father may be excused. But in times like the present, after so much experience, so many examples, so much investigation into the nature of governments, nothing but parrow-minded prejudice, wilful perversion of reason, or degraded servility towards the powers that be, can lay down such a principle. No comparison, probably, has done more muschief, than the one alluded to, because it perverts the very principles ' and elements of the subject to be elucidated. No two things can be more different than a state and a family. The ruling principle of the latter is love, forbearance and kindness; that of the former, stern justice, strict adherence to strict law. A family is composed of parents and children, bound together by the ties of satural affection, and the claim of infancy on manhood for protection. A state is comjased of men comparatively unconnected and independent. Eamilies are united by

nature, states by law. How unfortunate would be a family in which every member should insist, obstinately, on his right! How unfortunate have been these nations, which have left every thing to the kindness and paternal care of their rulers, and have not insisted, obstinately, on their rights! In very many instances, nations have prepared the way for the loss of their liberties by the concessions into which they have been hurried by gratitude towards great national benefactors, or those whom they have regarded as such. The greatest favor that monarchs could bestow on nations, would be to give up all favor, to make justice the only rule of government. V. To return to the subject of representative constitutions. These may be divided into, 1, such as are founded on the union of the feudal estates, the clergy, nobility, citizens and peasantry; the two latter of which derive their right of representation from the charters of the ancient corporations: 2, such as establish the right of a general representation, like the American constitution, and such as partake of both characters, like the British constitu-Those of the first class either origunated in the feudal times, or have been since copied from such as did. Our limits will not allow us to discuss the mode m which the estates grew up and became the basis of these constitutions. (See Estates.) We will only observe, that external causes exerted here their usual influence; that the feudal states were conglomerates of many heterogeneous bodies; and that it was reserved for later ages to unfold the true principles of government; to ecparate the essential from the unessential and injurious; to give stability, distinctness and extent to principles before unsettled, indefinite and limited in their operation. The causes, however, which produced the feudal constitutions, and established the division of estates, have almost all ceased to operate long ago. The art of printing, schools, post-offices, and an improved sense of justice, have long since overthrown the barner which separated the different classes; and the constitutions which will remain, founded on the idea of cstates, are equally unjust and inconsistent with the spirit of the age, conferring, as they do, exclusive privileges on particular classes, when almost all the causes for which they were originally granted have ceased. They are remnants of times long gone by, and are kept up either by the influence of the privileged aristocracy, or by the belief of particular nations, that circumstances are unfavorable to a general representation; or they have been reestablished for the express purpose of counteracting the spirit of the age.

counteracting the spirit of the age.

The democratic tendency of time must be acknowledged by every calm and unprejudiced observer, whether he thinks the effect good or bad, whether he belongs to the class which deems all virtue and nobleness of character concentrated in the middle ages, to those who believe in the final perfection of mankind, or to those who have no standard for measuring the tate of a nation but statistical tables. Every thing, from the fashion of the dress to the cultivation of the intellect, tends to a democratic equality. . The turning point in the history of constitutions, from whence we must date the introduction into practice of the principles of general representation, is the establishment of the constitutions of the thirteen first U. States. France then adopted the same principles; and it will remain for ever one of the most prominent facts in the history of Napoleon, that wherever he became completely master of a country, he abolished the evtates, and, of course, bondage and feudal services, and established constitutions on the principle of general representation, although these, it is true, were not allowed to act freely. Europe, until the downfall of Napoleon, was continually involved in wars, into which the French emperor declared that England continually forced Whatever may have been the true cause of these continual conflicts, it cannot be demed, that, if the tumult of the strife had not prevented the operation of the just principles which these constitutions contained, they would have been of essential benefit: they would, at least, have formed a basis for further political developements; and, though they might. have appeared deficient, to a man accustomed to the liberty of the U. States, they would, at all events, have furnished a much more reasonable prospect of a speedy attainment of the great objects of political society, than the constitutions, if they deserve the name, which the conquerors of Napoleon have established in. or rather imposed on, different countries; e. g., the provincial estates which Prussia. has established in her different districts, and the political organization which the liouse of Austria has introduced into the Tyrol, which had sacrificed itself in a bloody struggle for that imperial family. These mock constitutions, together with the right of armed intervention, proclaimed by the holy alliance, are so entirely inconsistent with the spirit of the age, that

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ions, who stood highest in his confidence, maid to us, was essentially, by conviction. and natural inclination, the enemy of feudalism, and the sincere friend of the principles of equal liberty. It must al-ways be remembered, that he abolished every where, by one of his first acts, wherever his power reached, the feudal services, estates and constitutions; founded on the old corporations, which had become useless or obnoxious, and were, with very few exceptions, much more unpopalar than the actual rulers. We shall now give a very condensed view of the existing constitutions, including a more particular survey of those of the U. States.

Europe. I. Constitutions founded on the feudal estates of the middle ages, and on the system of corporations, conmue to exist, I. in the Austrian monara. In the arch-duchy of Lower Austria, in Suria and Caranthia, in Bohemia, Moravia, and, since 1817, also in Gahcia and Lodomerra with Bukowine. the estates are still kept up, comprising the four orders-the clergy, nobility, genry (Ritterstand) and citizens; the latter being represented by the magistrates of the royal cities. In the Tyrol, we find again, since March 24, 1816, the estates of peasants, cinzens, nobility, gentry and clergy. But, notwithstanding their gallant struggle against the French and Bavarians, they have not even received from Austria the right of a voice in the imposition of their own taxes, which formerly belonged to them; but the constitution allows them the right of making representations, in the name of the country, to the emperor! In the imperial part of Silesia, the estates are composed only of the dukes and princes, with the lords (Standesherren) and gentry (Ritterschaft), who are unmediately under the emperor. b. In the Louwardo-Venetian kingdom, the estates are founded, according to the constitution of April 24, 1815, on the system of corporations. Two central congregations exist at Milan and Venice: the different provincial congregations in the Lombardic part of the kingdom consist of deputies appointed by the king; in the Venetian part, of deputies elected by the central congregation and the gubernium (the Austrian designation of the government). All these deputies are from among the noble and not noble landed proprietors, and from the royal cities, under the sway of the imperial governors or delegates. The privileges of these estates consist almost

they afford no hopes of improvement ex-cent by their entire abolition. Napoleon, postulates, and in the distribution and col-ter one of the emperor's nearest connex-, lection of the taxes. Some have also the right of advising the government, and that of petitioning. c. In Hungary, the four orders of the estates—the high clergy, the barons and magnates, the gentry (Ric. terschaft) and royal free cities have important privileges. (See Hungary.) The nobility or gentry and the cities elect their deputies and give them instructions. d. In Transylvania, or Siebenbürgen, the gfand-prince exercises cortain rights of sovereignty, assisted by the representatives of the three nations (the Hungarians, Szeklers and Saxons) whom he convoked These representatives consist partly of royal officers, partly of deputies appointed by the regent or elected by the corporations. 2. Sardmian monarchy. On the island of Sardmia, the clergy, nobility and deputies of the cities and boroughs exercise, together with the king, the right of legislating and taxing. 3. In the kingdom of Sweden, there exist, according to the latest constitution of June 7, 1809. the old estates, comprising four orders—, the nobility, clergy, citizens and crown-The diet has the right of legispeasonts. lation and taxation, and the superintendence of the finances, bank and mint. The king has an unconditional veto. 4. In the kingdom of Saxony, the estates are composed of three orders. The first order consists of the higher clergy, or prelates, princes, counts and lords, with the deputhe of the university of Leipsic. The secand order embraces the gentry, to which, since 1820, twenty-nine deputies also have been joined from the possessors of noble estates.\* The third order consists of depatice from the magistrates of the cities. The business of granting and fixing the taxes, and of receiving the accounts connected therewith, belongs to the diet: important laws of a general character must also be laid before them for consideration. 5. A sumlar constitution exists in the duchy of Saxe-Gotha, in which the legislative body consists of the estates of the counts, the gentry (Ritterschaft) and the citizens. Each of these estates has only one vote. 'The principality of Altenburg has two estates—the gentry and the citi zens. 6. In the kingdom of Hanover, the estates were, according to a decree of Dec 7, 1819, divided into two chambers. The

> " Noble cstate (in German, Rithegut) is such as estate as formerly could, or, in some countries, still can, be held by a nobleman only. Prussia has abolished this condition of tenure, so that commoners can buy such estates.

old system of corporations was retained. Austrian fashion was introduced, Nov. 9, 1818. The estates consist of the clergy and the deputies from the communities. appointed by the magistrates. power is simply to make propositions. 8. In the two grand-duchies of Mecklenburg-Schwerin and M. Strelitz, the estates consist of the Ritterschaft and deputies of the corporations. They have very great privileges, which the former particularly maintains with great strictness. 9. In the principalities of Reuss, the old estates also exist, as, likewise, 10. in the Danish duchy of Saxe-Lauenburg. 11. The republic of the seven Ionian islands was erected March 21, 1800, and governed according to the aristocratic, constitution, established, under Russian influence, Dec. 6, 1803. When the republic was placed under the protection of Great Britain, the lord-commissioner, Maitland, dissolved the senate, which had existed at Cortu since 1803, and established a new constitution Jan. 1, 1818, according to which the legislative body consists of deputies of the nobility, and the senate is chosen from among the legislative body. II. The constitution of Great Britain is founded jointly upon the old system of corporations, that of estates, and that of a general national representation. (See Great Britain.) III. A national representation, in the full sense of the phrase, was first established in the year 1787, by the constitution of the U. States. The reader will find, towards the end of this article, an abstract of the constitutions of the several states which compose this union. Constitutions in which the aristocratic element was excluded were soon after established in France. Several other states then shook, off the fetters of the feudal system, and introduced more or less of the democratic element into the constitutions which they adopted. During the last half century, there have been 111 new, written constitutions established in Europe and America: 31 of them have been abolished, but the remainder still exist, and about 100 millions of people are ruled by them.-A. France has seen, since the revolution, nine different constitutions:-1. The monarchical-representative constitution of 1791. 2. The republican-democratic constitution of June 24, 1793. This never went wholly into operation, much power being given, for the time, to dictatorial bodies. 3. The constitution of Sept. 23, 1795, which established the directorial VOL. III. 40

covernment, and divided the legislative (See Hanover.) 7. In the principality of body of the national convention into the Liechtenstein, a constitution after the council of the ancients and the council of the five hundred. It vested the right of electing the representatives intenediately in the primary assemblies. 4. The constitution of Dec. 13, 1799, established a first consul for ten years, with the right of proposing laws, and two other consuls. The first consul (Bonaparte) was surrounded by a council of state and ministers. A triple election was, at the same time, established. The citizens of each commune chose one tenth of their number as persons qualified for public office; the aggregate of the persons thus nathed in all the communes of a department chose also one tenth of their number: and from the whole body of persons thus nominated by all the departments, forming the national list of persons eligible to official situations, the conservative senate chose the legislators, tribunes, consuls, the members of the court of cassation, and the commissioners of accounts. In this instrument, the principles of the liberty of the press, and others of a similar kind, which had been guarantied in the former constitution, were omitted. 5. Many essential changes were soon after made in this constitution by the various senatus-consilles organiques, so called. These decrees of the senate, of Aug. 2 and 4, 1802, gave the first consul, Napoleon Bonaparte, his dignity for life, and invested him with several monarchical prerogatives. 6. At last, the scnatus-consulte of May 18, 1804, elevated the first consul to the dignity of emperor of the French, and the succes-ion was made hereditary in his family: France had now a monarchical constitution with some democratic forms: one of these—the tribunate—was abolished by the senatus-consulte organique of Aug. 19, 1807. The equality of all citizens, in the eye of the law, was a principle preserved in all the French constitutions, and even the Bourbons were chiged to make it a prominent feature in the Charte constitutionnelle. 7. After the downfall of Napoleon, the senate drew up a new constitution, of April 6, 1814, in which an aristocracy, hereditary in the families of the senators, was established. It guarantied, however, in several respects, the liberties of the people. But Louis XVIII. as it is well known, adopted, at St. Ouen, May 2, 1814, only certain principles of this constitution, relating to the representative system in two bodies, the responsibility of the ministers, the judges' tenure of office during good behavior, the trevo-

cability of the sale of the national property, the capacity of every Frenchman for all civil and military appointments, and, the before mentioned, the equality of all sitizens in the eye of the law. 8. After This, the king promulgated, June 4, 1814, the present constitution, the Charte constitutionnelle (q. v.), which had been drawn up by a committee appointed by him. It established a chamber of peers, to be elected by the king, and a chamber of deputies, to be chosen by electoral col-leges. These two bodies, together with the king, were to form the legislature. But this instrument left many points unsettled, which allowed full play to machinations of all kinds. 9. After the return of Napoleon from Elba, the emperor pronulgated a new constitutional instrument, as an addition to the imperial constitution. April 22, 1815. This was adopted by the people, in June, on the occasion of the celebrated Champ de Mai. When Louis XVIII returned to Paris, the Charte went again into operation. By the electoral law of June 28, 1820, the democratic element of this fundamental law, as respects the representation of the people, lyis been essentially weakened, or rather thrown out; as, in a population of 35,000,000, there are only 70,000 electors, and only 5 or 6 thousand who can be elected. The law of June 9, 1824, established septembal elections of the chamber of deputies, though the Charte had limited their term of office to five years.—B. In the Netherlands, similar changes took place. An act of arbitrary power was necessary to overcome the opposition of the federal party to the friends of union (democrats), before the first constitution of the Batavian republic, fashioned after the French constitution. was accepted, April 23, 1798, by the mational assembly. tion, of Oct. 16, 1801, was fashioned after the fourth French constitution, of 1790. Under the influence of Napoleon, the Batavian republic received the third constitution, of March 15, 1805, by which a pensionary of the state was put at the head of the government. Only a few points were necessary to be changed, when the treaty with France, of May 24, 1806, connected the new kingdom of Holland most intimately with France. This was done by the constitutional law of the kingdom of Holland, of June 10, 1806, which remained in force until 1810, when Holland was made part of the French empire (July 9). In Dec., 1813, the son of the last stadtholder, the present king William I. was acknowledged as sovereign

of the Netherlands. He convoked the notables in March, 1814, who accepted the constitution proposed by him. Thus the kingdom of the Netherlands, established by the congress of Vienna, received its fifth constitution, Aug. 24, 1815, which, in spite of the opposition of the Catholic notables of Belgium, went into operation, in the Belgian provinces, in 1815, and is, therefore, the fundamental law of all the 17 provinces of the kingdom. constitution is founded on the basis of the representative system. The states-general, who represent the people of the Netherlands, exercise, in connexion with the king, the legislative power, and determme the budget, consist of two cham-The members of the first are bers. chosen by the king for life; those of the second, by the estates of the provinces, for three years. The provinces have three estates—the gentry, the citizens and peasants.—C. Poland was, until 1791, un aristocratico-monarchical republic ; ir fact, it might be called an aristocratic republic, because the king elected had very little power. The first step towards a more popular constitution was the charter. given to the cities in April 14, 1791, which gained the favor of them all towards the new order of things. Soon after, the constitution of May 3, 1791, was adopted, and it is Amarkable that it was finished four months before the first French constitution; but the confederation of Targoylitz, formed under Catharine II, destroyed his instrument, and reestablished the old order of things. At a later period, Napoleon, at the peace of Tilsit, created the duchy of Warsaw, and gave it a constitution, signed by him, Dresden, July 22, 1807, which, among other things, abolished bondage, and pronounced the equality of The second consum all carzens in the eye of the law. After the connexion of the kingdom of Poland with Russia, by the congress of Vienna. the emperor Alexander adopted, April 30, 1c15, the title of king of Poland, and gave this kingdom a constitution, Nov. 27, 1815, which established a national representation, in a diet consisting of the king and two houses of legislature. The seuate forms the first chamber, chosen by the king; the second chamber consists of 77 deputies of the land-holders and 51 depu tice of the communities. The constitution guarantical, also, the liberty of the press, which, however, has been long since suspended. The republic of Cracow, erected by the congress of Vienna, also received, May 3, 1815, a constitution, signed by the princes Metternich and Hardenberg, and

count Rasumoffsky. The assembly of the representatives of this little republic consists of the deputies of the communities, power of the king, however, still more of the senate sent by this body, which has the executive power, three prelates sent by the chanter, three decrease of the figure. by the chapter, three doctors of the facul-. ties of the university, and six justices of the peace.—D. Sweden and Norway have two entirely different constitutions, though both countries are under one king. We made mention of the Swedish constitution above. Norway adopted a constitution of a mixed democratic and monarchical character, May 17, 1814, after the peace of Kiel, Jan. 14, 1814, had been concluded. The present king of Sweden, after having invaded Norway, and conquered it, assented to the whole constitution, with those modifications only which necessarily grew out of the connexion of Norway with Sweden under one monarch. These purticulars were settled by the storthing (diet) held at Christiania, Nov. 4, 1814, so that the present constitution is called the constitution of Nov. 4, 1814. Nobility is abolished. The storthing, or legislative body, consists of two houses—the logthing and the oldesthing. (See Norway)—E. The old forms of the Spanish monarchy were first called to life again by the junta (assembled at Bayonne, under the influence of Napoleon), who drew up and adopted the constitution of July 6, 1808, at the time when Joseph Bonaparte became king of Span. But the regency, which governed in the name of Ferdinand VII, proclaimed a new constitu**ti**on, March 19, 1812—the constitution of the Corteswhich, however, was abolished by Ferdinand VII, on his feturn to Spain, by his declaration at Valencia, May 4, 1814, but again accepted and sworn to by him, March 7, 1820, to which he was compelled by the army. This instrument not only abolished the old feudal and lucrarchical forms of government, but it likewise limsted considerably the powers of the kmg; so much that a strong party in Spain espoused his cause, and four of the first continental powers declared themselves, at the congress of Verona, in December, 1822, against the constitution, and maintained that the authority of the king ought According to the. to be strengthened. 375th article of the constitution, however, the constitution had been in operation for eight years. • France declared war against Spain, and abolished the constitution of the cortes in 1823. (See Cortes.) Portugal, likewise, received, by the revolution

April 23, 1826 abolished this instrument. don Pedro, emperor of Brazil, gave a new constitution, which, however, was abolished by his brother, the usurper of his throne, don Miguel, who, in order to surround himself with some of the appearances of a legitimate sovereign, renewed some of the forms of the old estates. (See Portugal.) In Naples, the army proclaimed the Spanish constitution, which was sworn to by the king July 13, 1820. The parliament of the Two Sicilies was con-vened Oct. 1, 1820, and drew up a new constitution, on the basis of the Spanish, in January, 1821; but, in consequence of the entrance of an Austrian army into Naples, conformably to the resolutions of the congress of Laybach, this constitution was abolished in March, 1821. The same thing happened in Piedmont, where the constitution was proclaimed, Spanish March 10, 1821, but abolished by the Austrian army, which entered Turin April 10, 1821.—F. Italy, which, for many centuries, has been the theatre of political conflict and bloody revolutions, has also experienced more changes, in respect to the constitutional representations of her people, than any other country. a. Savoy, Nice and Picdmont were governed, from the years 1796 and 1798 to 1814, according to the constitutions drawn up for France. Since 1814, the king has governed without the cooperation of popular representatives. Genoa lost her ancient aristocratic constitution in 1797, and received, through the influence of general Bonaparte, in the convention at Montebello, of June 6, 1797, a democratic constitution, which lasted from Dec. 2, 1797, to 1802, when its place was supplied by a constitution modelled after that of the Cisalphie republic, and · signed by Bonaparte and Talleyrand, June. 26, 1802; but a new constitutional law of Dec. 1, 1802, remodelled it again. June 4, 4805, the Ligurian republic was incorporated with France; and Genoa did not receive again her old name until lord Bentinck, April 19, 1814, in the name of Great Britain, proclaimed the restoration such a change could take place only after not her old aristocratic republican constitution; but the congress at Vienna abolished this, and gave the republic of Genoa, as a duchy, to the king of Sardmia, by which an end was put to her representative government; but the new duchy received a

senate, high court and provincial counsel- which there are some aristocratic elements. from general Bonaparte, June 29, 1797. It was fashioned after the French consti-"tution of 1797; but, in 1798, the French ambassador Trouvé made essential changes in it; and, in 1799, the whole republic was broken up by the armics of Russia and Austria. It was reestablished by the memorable victory of Marengo, in 1800, and governed provisorily; and received from a state-consulta at Lyons, as an Italian republic, a new constitution, Jan. 28, 1802. lts president was the first consul of France. This constituuon provided three electoral collegesthose of the land owners, of the learned bodies, and of the merchants. When the Italian republic was changed into the kingdom of Italy, and Napoleon had become king of Italy, March 16, 1805, he gave this state three constitutional statutes, of March 16, March 27 and June 5, 1805, in which the monarchical form was more and more developed. After the downfall of Napoleon, the emperor Francis established here the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, and gave it, April 24, 1815, that constitution which we have mentioned above. c. The aristocratic republic of Lucca received, in 1799, from a French general, a democratic constitution, fashioned after that of France of 1795; but it hardly had time to go into operation, on account of the advance of the allied troops into Italy. In consequence of the victory of Marengo, a constitution similar to that of the Cralpine republic of 1802, was proclaimed, Dec. 26, 1801; but, in 1805, the republic begged the emperor to give them a prince out of his own family. This was general Bacciocchi (q. v.), prince of Lucca and Piombino, and Napoleon signed the new consutution, June 23, 1805. A congress of Vienna, in 1814, gave this principality (still governed, in all essential respects, according to the constitution of 1805) to the former queen of Etruria. d. The States of the Church were changed by general Berthier, Feb. 15, 1798, into a Roman republic, which received a consti-tution, March 20, 1798, drawn up by Daunou; on the model of the French constitution of 1795. It expired, with the dissolution of the republic, in 1700. After the pouc was reestablished, in 1814, he proclaimed, July 6, 1816, a constituent decree. .c. The miniature republic of San Marino continues to preserve its ancient democratic representative constitution, in

John, without whose consent no new taxes f. Naples received a constitution from king Joseph, at Bayonne, June 20, 1808, pine republic received its first constitution which was confirmed by Napoleon; but his successor, Joschim, never put it into operation. Joachim (Murat), however, after his defeat, in 1815, ordered his minister Agar to draw up a constitution; but this was only posted up at the corners of the streets, and never acted upon. At au earlier period, in 1812, lord Bentinck had . established in Sicily (then under the protortion of England and the sceptre of king Ferdinand IV, soon afterwards under that of his son Francis) a constitution fashioned according to the British, which vested the legislative power exclusively in a parliament of peers and commons, the executive in the king, and the judiciary in independent courts. The feudal constitution was entirely abolished. This constitution was in force until July 23, 1814, on which day Ferdinand IV, who had once more taken the rems of government, overthrew the forms prescribed by England, together with the parliament of Sicily, which had But when, after the hitherto existed. downfall of Murat, he received Naples back, in 1815, from the congress of Vienna, he convoked the two houses of the Sichan parlament, and communicated to them the draught of a new constitution for Sicily, of May 16, 1815, which had much similarity to the charter granted by Louis XVIII to the French, in 1814. This constitution, also, never went into operation; but when Ferdinand IV, Dec. 8, 1816, made Naples and Sicily one kingdom, and assumed the title of Ferdinand I, king of the Two Sicilies, he promulgated for the whole monarchy the constituent law of Dec. 12, 1816, which confirmed the abolition of feudalism, but did not reestablish a national representation. (See division E (Spain), of this article.) - G. Germa-The constitution of the former Gerny. man empire was founded entirely on the principles of the feudal system, and the old corporations. It had become a mere mockery, and even worse than useless. The eagle of the empire was often conpared to an old, worm-caten, stuffed bird, which must not be touched, for fear of its falling to pieces. Napoleon abolished the empire, and established the confederation of the Rhine, July, 12, 1806. (See Confederation.) But the deputies to be sent by the members of the confederation never actually assembled. The constitution of this confederacy did not guaranty a national representation in the different countries belonging to it., June 8, 1815, the

was established. The 13th article runs thus :- " In each of the confederated states, a constitution, founded on the estates, shall be introduced" (In allen Bundesstaaten wird eine landesständische Verfassung Statt finden). The explanation of this article caused much dispute, but, at last, the old estates and the monarchical hasis were considered as the essential parts of all the new constitutions. In consequence of the German confederacy, several constitutions were formed between 1806 and 1815, in Germany, some of which inclined more to the representative system; others, more to the old system of feudal estates and corporations. Those states, which retained or reestablished the old feudal estates and corporations, have been mentioned already in this article, under division I.-1. The kingdom of Westphalia, which lasted from 1807 to 1814, received a constitution modelled after the French representative system. This served as a model for the constitutions of several other states belonging to the confederation of the Rhme. It was given by Napoleon, Nov. 15, 1807, and its deficienries supplied by the statute of Dec. 23, It expired with the kingdom. 2. The grand-duchy of Frankfort land a -milar constitution, from Aug. 16, 1810, to 1813, which met with a like fate. 3. In he kingdom of Bayaria, which belonged dso to the confederation of the Rhme, a national representation was established in May, 1808, by a formal constitution and six constituent edicts; but, by the decree of Dec. 2, 1811, the owners of majorates (entailed estates) and the possessors of noble fiefs were declared representatives of the Bayarian nation by right of birth. At last, the king, Maximilan, granted the constitution of May 26, 1818, accompanied by 10 edects. May 17, 1818, a regulation for the communities had been already promulgated. The constitution establishes two houses-one of peers, the other of commons—the former to hold their places by right of birth, or by appointment of the king, the latter by election. This election, however, is not made by the people collectively but by the different estates-nobility, clergy and scholars, citizens and peasants. This constitution nominally prosides for the chief points of civil liberty, freedom of conscience and of the press, equality of all the citizens in the eye of. the law, the equal capacity of all citizens for all appointments in the service of the state, also the equal distribution of taxes,

German confederation (see Confederation) the responsibility of public officers, &c 4. Würtemberg. King Frederic abolished in 1806, the old constitution, founded or a compact concluded between the estates and the sovereign, and governed absolute ly, according to the decree of organization of March 18, 1806. Jan. 11, 1815, he issued a proclamation, by which he intended to prepare the way for the establishment of such a constitution as he wished; but the assembly convoked by him in March of the confederation of the Rhine, and 1815, refused the proposed constitution. asking for the reestablishment of the old one. At last, the constitution of Sept. 25. 1819, was established by way of compact. It provides for two houses of legislature. (See Wurtemberg.) 5. The grand-duchy of Baden, after several preliminary decrees, received a constitution, Aug. 22, 1818, which provides for two houses of legislature. The first is composed of peers, of the deputies of the gentry (Ritterschaft) and the universities, a Catholic bishop, a Protestant prelate, and 'eight members nominated by the monarch, without reference to their birth or station. The lower house consists of deputies, chosen with reference to the population. (See Baden.) 6. The grand-duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt received a constitution, providing for two houses, May 18, 1820. (See Hesse-Darmstadt.) 7. The principality of Waldeck and Pyrmont received a constitution Jan. 28, 1811. This was changed, however, April 19, 1816, when a constitution was established, by which only the land-owners and corporations of the cities are repre-sented. 8. The duchy of Nassau received a constitution by the ordinance of Sept. 2, 1814, which establishes two houses, one of hereditary peers, the other of representatives, chosen for a limited time. July 1, 1816, a new organization of the government was proclaimed. It is founded, for the most part, on the division of estates, 9. Saxe-Wennar received a constitution, Sept. 20, 1809, while she belonged to the confederation of the Rhine. Another constitution was adopted, May 5, 1816, founded on the estates of the nobility, citizens and peasants, each of which sends 10 deputies, while the university of Jena sends 1. There is only one house of legislature. The elections are free, and the liberty of the press is guarantied. The dict, opened Dec. 17, 1820, exhibited the remarkable instance of a representative body refusing publicity to its deliberations, and allowing only the publication of portions of its proceedings. The liberty of the press has been long since suspended. It is hardly necessary to mention how ut-

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terly insufficient a basis of representation the ancient estates are in our times, since the important classes of the learned (who were formerly represented in the clergy), artists, mechanics, merchants and manufacturers remain, on this system, unreprosented. 10. Saxe-Coburg received a constitution from its sovereign, Aug. 21, 1817, founded on the ostates. When the diet is , founded on the ostates. not sitting, a permanent committee watches over the maintenance of the constitution, and the execution of the laws. A further constitutional regulation was given Dec. 15, 1820, and the diet first assembled in 1821. 11. Saxc-Hildburghausen received a consutution, Jan. 7, 1818, founded on the A permanent committee of the nobility, the cities and clergy, represents the digt when it is not sitting. 12. The principality of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt received a constitution, April 21, 1821, founded on the estates. 13. The principality of Lippe-Schaumburg received a constitution by a decree of Jan. 15, 1815. It is founded on the estates. 14. Lippe-Detmold received a constitution, June 8, 1819, from the princess-regent Paulina, drawn up by herself; but this instrument was too liberal for the old estates of the nobility and the cities, which protested against it, as did also the prince of Schaumburg as agnate. (q. v.) 15. The duchy of Brunswick-Wolfenbuitel received a constitution, Jan. 19, 1820, founded on the cetates and corporations. It provides only one house of legislature. In respect to the granung of taxes, the old constitution was retained. 16. The free city of Frankfort, during the reign of Napoleon, received a liberal organization, Oct. 10, 1806. July 18, 181ti, an act was passed by the senate, supplementary to the old constitution of the city, when it was an imperial free city, which was accepted by the citizens. The former privileges of the patrician families do not exist any longer. 17, 18, 19. The three Hauscatic cines have reestablished, since 1814, their old constitutions, founded on the ancient corporations, and, like several others, lattle in unison with the demands of the age. (See Constitutions des trois Villes Libres-Anseatiques, hy Villers, Leipsic, 1814.) 20. The duke of Saxe-Meiningen established a constitution, Sept. 4, 1824, founded on the estates. H. The Swiss confederacy was transformed, by the French directory, in 1799, into the Helvetic republic, with a democratic form of government. This gave rise to bloody contests. Bonaparte, by the act of mediation, Feb. 19, 1803, gave a new fedcrative constitution to this country, com-

bining ancient and modern elements. Sept. 8, 1814, the cantons convened again, and received into the confederacy of the 19 cantons 3 new ones-Valais, Geneva and Neufchatel. Each canton has its own representative constitution, founded on the elements of the old system, together with the principles of the act of mediation. In some, the aristocratic principle prevails: in others, the democratic. Some canton are purely democratic, as Valais, Coine Zag, &c. Neufchatel has a constitution in which aristocratic, democratic and mo narchical principles are combined. The king of Prussia—the sovereign of this can ton—established this constitution, June 18, and Dec. 26, 1814.—L. A provisory rep. resentative constitution was adopted by the national congress of the flellenes, Jan. 1 (13), 1822, at Epidaurus. According to this instrument, the government was to consist of two bodies-the legislative senate, composed of deputies elected by the people, and the executive council., In July, 1827, the national assembly at Napoli di Romania adopted the constitution of 1827. Count Capo d'Istria was chôsen president, and entered on his office Jan. 22, 1828. The state of this unfortunate nation, however, is so unsettled, that we must still expect many changes.—In Asia, several Countries have fundamental laws. These, it is true, hardly deserve the name of constitutions, since they are destitute of those guarantees of the rights of the people, which we are accustomed to consider as integral plants of a constitution. Yet several of them, however, are, in fact, subject to as strict limitations as the constitutions of many of those states which we have just enumerated. Nay, it would be far more difficult to change certain fundamental lass in some Asiatic states, founded, as they often are, on the religion and ancient distoms of the people, than to introduce a new constitution into many of the Europoun states. We have seen that the mere decrees of certain European sovereigns have been sufficient to establish, change, abolish, revstablish and reabolish constitutions in the states under their rule. One point, however, must be kept in viewthat, in almost all the European constitutions, the idea of a representation of the people is a fundamental one, however imperiect may be the means and forms provided for securing it. But we know of no fundamental law, in any Asiatic state, which embraces the idea of representation; and we may, therefore, be excused from going into a consideration of the Asiatic forms of government, in an

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enumerated the European states which have received constitutions, it may not be uninteresting to take a survey of those European states which are governed by sovereigns entirely absolute. Austria was mentioned among those countries in which constitutions founded on the old feudal estates exist; but, although thismay be the case in point of form, yet the Austrian monarchy is virtually one of the most absolute governments that can exist, and has systematically pursued, for a long\* series of years, so arbitrary a course, in many respects (including the administration of the finances and the intellectual 'cultivation of the people), that we can hardly find any thing parallel in govern-ments which claim to be purely absolute; as, for instance, in Prussia. The following governments are without constitutions: -1. Piodmont, Savoy and Nice. 2. Tuscany, Parma and Modena. 3. The Two Sicilies. 4. The States of the Church. 5. Prussia, with the exception of Neufchatel, though the royal decree of May 22, 1815, just before the last campaign against Napoleon, promised the nation a representative constitution. The king, some years since, established provincial estates, founded on the different estates already enumerated, and the city corporations, which have the right to be consulted in regard to taxation, and to discuss what is laid before them by the king, through the marshal of the diet. Their rights, however, are, in reality, nugatory, because they have not even the power of making propositions to the government; and when, a few years ago, the estates of the province of the Lower Rhine petitioned the king not to abolish the trial by jury, which had been in use on the left bank of the Rhine from the time when that district had been connected with France, the king was highly displeased, and reminded the estates that they were convened only to consider what was laid before them by his maishal. 6. The electorate of Hesse-Cassel. 1815, the elector, having resumed possesssion of the electorate, after the abolition of the kingdom of Westphalia, convened not only the old estates, those of the nobility, clergy and citizens, but also that of the presents, which gave rise to animadversion; and, on the assembly's disagreeing to the new constitution, which he presented to them, the elector dissolved the body; since which time the government has been entirely absolute. 7. The landgraviate of Hesse-Homburg. 8. The duchy of Anhalt. Dec. 28, 1810, this little coun-

article on constitutions.—Having thus try received from the reigning duke constitution, modelled entirely on that of the French empire; but the guardian of his successor suspended the constitution. Oct. 24, 1812. 9. The principalities of Hohenzollern-Hechingen and Siegmaringen. 10. The principality of Schwarzburg-Sondershausen. 11. The duchy of Oldenburg. 12. The duchy of Holstein. Both the latter, however, are about to receive, according to public report, constitu-13. The tions founded on the estates. kingdom of Denmark, in which the ancient constitution was abolished in 1660. The people cooperated with the government in the overthrow of the old system, as it was favorable only to the nobility and the privileged corporations, the former: of whom greatly abused their powers, The empire of Russia. 15. Spain. 14. 16. Turkey. 17. Portugal.

America. The English colonies in North, America, before the declaration of the independence of the U. States, were all governed by charters from the crown of England, the principal features of which were a house of representatives, and a governor and body of counsellors, the first chosen by the people, the two last appointed by the king (or proprietors), except in the cases of Connecticut and Rhode Island plantations, in which the people were empowered to choose all their officer. The constitution prepared by the distinguished philosopher, John Locke, for South Carolina, at the request of the proprietors of the territory, operated no better than Plato's Republic would probably have done, if it had ever been put into practice. The constitution consisted of 120 articles/and was founded on aristocratical and feudal principles. Three classes of nobility were to be established, viz., barons, caciques and landgraves. The first were to possess 12, the second, 24, and the third, 48,000 acres of land, which were to remain inalienable in their families. The parliament, which consisted of one house only, was composed of the lords, proprietors, landgraves, caciques, and deputies from the free inhabitants holding inheritable property. This plan of government produced nothing but anarchy and discord. In the following Abstract of the Constitutions of the U. States, the constitution of Virginia framed in 1776 is given, since the draft of the constitution adopted by the late convention (1830) in that state has not been acted on by the people at the time when we write. If it should be accepted by them, the render will find a sketch of it in the article Virginia.

476	476 ABSTRACT OF THE								
Date of Constitution	Mane and Twm of Office.	Time of stated	CISLATURE. —	Appar-	Ection;	Qualytica- trons.	EXECUTIVE		
UNITED ST I787. (Ame	resenta- senate,	First Monday in December.	year Senators, age 30, 9 years' ctitzen- resi- ship; representatives, age 25, 7 years' ctitzenship. Both inhabit- ants of state for which chosen.	Senators, 2 for each state, appointed by the legislatures. Representatives, according to population, excluding \$\frac{2}{3}\$ of the slaves.	By electors, appointed as the re- spective state legislatures may direct; 4 years.	Being a natural born cuizen, or a ritizen, at the adoption of constitution; age 35: 14 yrs' residence.	ed negative; official pat- Qualified negative; official pat- Qualified negative; by consent and pardoning power, of senate makes treaties, appoints with council ambassadors, and principal officers of the U. States; pardoning power,		
MAINE 1819.	Logislature of Maine, annually; senate and house of representa-	First Wednesday in January.	ars' citizenship, 1 13 months' district Senutors, age 25.	In proportion to population.	By the people: annually.	Utizenship; 5 years' state residence; uge 30.	Qualified negative; official pat- romage, and pardoning power, pointly wall, council.		
Jew Hampshire			Fredold; district resid Sentions, age 30, 7 years' residence; representatives, years's.	Senators, in proportion to taxa- in proportion to population, tion; representatives, to number, of ratable polls.	ı	Frechold: age 30; 7 years' resi- Citizenslup; 5 dence, dence; age 30.	Qualified negative; official pat-Qualified negative; official pat-Qualified negative; by consent rounge and pardoning power, of senate makes treaties, appoints jointly with council ambasedors, and principal officers of the U. States; pardoning power,		
MASSACHUSETTS (Anended 1821.)	General court, annually; senute of 40, and house of representa-	Last Wednesday in May and m January.	Senators, freshold of £300 or personal estate of £600, 5 years, residence. Representatives, freshold of £100 or ratable estate of £306, I year's residence.	Senators, in proportion to taxation; representatives, to number of ratable polls,	By the people: annually.	Freehold of £1000 : 7 years' residence; of the Christail religion.	Qualified negative; official par- rotage and pardotting power, jointly with council.		

## CONSTITUTIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

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couson on walk, Ab- once, de	Governi, Number i Election i Qualifica- tions i Forers.	indiciy	How re-	Qualifica- tions of Po- ters	Day of Ger and Electro	Provision for gas and ing Constitution
Vice-president, who is, ex officio, man, is, president of the senate.	ione.	By president, with advice and consent of senate; during good behavior.	By impeachment.	and 6 Residence and payment of taxes. Cuzenship, and 3 months' state Those requisite for the most nure of merous branch of the respective to and state legislatures.	Regulated by legislatures of the Day of Genrespective states.	to be The sense of the people to be T. e sense of the people may be Two thirds of congress may progreed taken septemially on the sub-taken on amendments proposed taken septemially on the sub-taken on amendments proposed taken septemially on the sub-taken on amendments proposed taken septemially on the sub-taken on the sub-taken of the constitution.  The sense of the people to so an application of the constitution by two thirds of legislatures, shall only a convention.  Amendments to be ratified by the states.
President of senate.	ieven; by legislature; citizen-lip and state residence; to adisc the governor in the executive part of government.	By governor and council; during good behavior till age of 70. Justices of peace for 7 years.	By impeachment.	Cuzenship, and 3 months' state residence.	Second Monday in September.	Te sense of the people may be taken on amendments proposed by two thirds of legislature.
President of senate.	Five: by the people; freehold, Sage 30, 7 years' state residence; sofficial patronage and power to reprieve and pardon jointly with the governor.	By governor and council; judges, of supreme court during good behavior till age of 70.	,	Residence and payment of taxes.	Mon- In March	to be The sense of the people to be Te sense of the people magned taken septemnially on the sub-taken on amendments profes and ject of a revision of the constitution. by two thirds of legislature, wes, at tion.
Leutenant-governor	from the se control of the se	B. povernor and council; during good behavior. Justices of the peace for 7 years.	By impeachment; by governor by unpeachment, and council, on address of both houses of the legislature.	ြင် ဗ	sate, first Represent	The sense of the people to be The taken on any amendments agreed take to by a majority of senate and ject two thirds of representances, at tion two successive bessions.

	fa - 1	ABSTR	ACT (	F TH	E		
Name and Three of Office.	Time of Trace of Acting.	ATURE.	Appor-	Elections ;	Combles- tions.	Powers	
	First Wednesday of May and last Wednesday of October.			By the people.		A vote in the council; but no negative on acts of both houses.	Deputy-governor.
General assembly, annually set ate of 12, and house of representatives.	First Wednesday of May.	freehold, ence; or of militia Blacks e	Schate by general ticket; representatives by towns.	By the people; annually.	An elector; age 30 years.	Qualified negative, with power to reprieve till end of next session of legislature.	Lieutenant-governor, who is, ez Deputy-governor.
General assembly, or house of representatives, annually.	Second Thursday of October.	Two years' state and one years' towrship residence.	By towns.	By the people; annually.	Four years' residence,	٠(	r Lieutenant-governor.
Senate of 32, one fourth annually: and assembly of 128, annually.	First Tuesday in January.	Senator must be freeholders.	In proportion to population.	By the people; biennially.	Being a native citizen, a free- holder; age 30; 5 years' resi- dence.	Qualified negative; official par- ronage, with consent of senate; pardoning power, except in cases of treasors, which he can reprieve till end of next session of legisla- ture.	Lieutenant governor, who is, er office, president of senate.
	ate of 32, one fourth annu- General assembly, or house of General assembly, annually; General assembly; council of set ate of 12, and house of rep- 12, including governor and dep- resentatives.	ate of 32, one fourth annu- General assembly, or house of General assembly; and assembly of 128, annu- representatives, annually.  set ate of 12, and house of rep- 12, including governor and dep- and Transfer and set of 12, and house of rep- of offer.  resentatives.  resentatives.  resentatives.  Rirst Wednesday of May.  First Wednesday of May and Transfer and house of rep- of offer.  Record Thursday of October.	ate of 32, one fourth annu- General assembly, or house of General assembly; and assembly of 128, annu- representatives, annually.  The set at a first Wednesday of Nay.  The set and one years' state and one years' cluzenship; freehold, and six tow, ship residence.  The set at a first Wednesday of May.  The set and one years' cluzenship; freehold, and six tow, ship residence.  The years' state and one years' cluzenship; freehold, and six tow, ship residence.  The years' state and one years' cluzenship; freehold, and six tow, ship residence.  The years' state and one years' cluzenship; freehold, and six tow, ship residence.  The years' state and one years' cluzenship; freehold, and six tow, ship residence.  The years' state and one years' cluzenship; freehold, and six tow, ship residence.  The years' state and one years' cluzenship; freehold, and six tow, ship residence.  The years' state and one years' cluzenship; freehold, and six tow, ship residence.  The years' state and one years' cluzenship; freehold, and six tow, ship residence.  The years' state and one years' cluzenship; freehold, and six tow, ship residence.  The years' state and one years' state and one years' cluzenship; or a year's tow, ship residence.  The years' state and one years' state and one years' cluzenship; or a year's tow, ship residence.	ate of 32, one fourth annu- General assembly, or house of General assembly, annually; and assembly of 128, annually.  The sentatives and house of representatives, annually.  The sentatives and house of representatives.  The sentatives of May and six freehold, and six months residence, of militia duty; or paying a tax. Blacks excluded.  Second Thursday of October.  The sentatives of May and six months residence, of militia duty; or paying a tax. Blacks excluded.  Sentatives by towns.  Sentatives by towns.	ate of 32, one fourth annu-representatives, annually.  and assembly of 128, annu-representatives, annually.  and assembly of 128, annu-representatives, annually.  First Wednesday of May.  First Wednesday of May and last Wednesday of May and last Wednesday of October.  Two years state and one years Citizenship; freehold, and six months residence, of militia duty; or paying a tax. Blacks excluded.  Senatives by towns.  By towns.  By the people; biennially.  By the people; annually.  By the people; biennially.	are of 32, one fourth annu- General assembly, or house of General assembly, general assembly, council of the search of 12, and house of rep- 12, including governor and dep- as Transfer of 12, and house of rep- 12, including governor and dep- as Transfer of 12, and house of rep- 12, including governor and dep- as Transfer of 12, and house of rep- 12, including governor and dep- as Transfer of 12, and house of rep- 12, including governor and dep- as Transfer of 12, and house of rep- as Transfer of 12, and house of May and are a Transfer of 12, and house of May and are a Transfer of 12, and house of May and are a Transfer of 12, and house of May and are a Transfer of 12, and house of May and are a Transfer of 12, and house of May and are a Transfer of 12, and house of May and are a Transfer of 12, and house of May and are a Transfer of 12, and house of May and are a Transfer of 12, and house of May and are a Transfer of 12, and house of Transfer of 12, and house of Transfer of 12, and house of 12, and house of Transfer of 12, and house of 12, and h	are of 32, one fourth same.  The second Thursday of October.  The second Thursday of May.  The second Thursday of October.  The seco

Constitutions	OF THE	UNITED	STATES.
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1			4 (4)	4	-
Corneil; Munder; Liethen; Electen; Guddker; tions; Powers.	Appoint Appoint Office	Hoe re-	Qualifer- tions of Pr- ters.	Day of General Election  Previous  for enemithy Construction	*
	red by the legisla-		Rhode Island has no written constitution, being still governed by the original charter granted by king Charles II of Great	See the article <i>Rhade</i>	
	me Annually electory dure.	the	Rhode Is constitution by the ori	Britain. ( Island.)	
None.	executive By general assembly; supreme Annually elected by the legislater and superior courts during good ture.  peace for behavior till 70; all others annually.	By unpeachment; by governor, on address of two thirds of the legislature.	Same as Qualifications of Legis- lature, which see.	In April.  Amendments may be proposed by a majority of house of representatives, on which the sense of the people shall be taken, if ratified next session by both houses.	
The executive council consists of the governor, lieutenain-governor, and 12 counsellors, elected annually by the people. It is possessed of all powers usually vested in a governor; and all legislative powers, except that of originating bills and pardoning: but they reprieve still the end of hur session of assembly.	By legislature and executive council, annually. Executive council, justices of peace for whole state er officio.	ā	in the One year's residence. of co- n paid, r's re- ction.	s may First Tuesday in September. In April.  The council of censors, who are Amendments may be proposed a ma-elected septemnially for the pur- by a majority of house of representations into violations sentatives, on which the sense of set the constitution, &c., may call the people shall be taken, if rating a the going the propile shall be taken, if rating a convention.	
Notie	By governor, by consent of senate; during good behavior till 60.  Justices of peace, 4 years. Senate, chancellor, and supreme judges, a court for trial of impeachments and correction of errors.	By two thirds of the assembly and majority of senate, by joint resolution.	sidence 1 year s in the county ylection. People \$250, tax thereos ship, and one yea	In October or November, hs may be provided by law.  Amendments may be proposed to the people if passed by a majority at one session of the legislature, and by two thirds at the session.	

480	Age of the second		ABSTR	,			
Date of	Name and Term of Office.	Time of states of Merting.	Original Constitutions .	Appor-	Election, Term of Office.	Qualifica- tions, ,	EXECUTIVE
NEW JERSEY.	and general	Fourth Tuesday in October.	One year county residence. For council, a freehold estate worth £1000; for assembly, £500, proclamation money.	In proportion to taxable mhab- Council, one member for each to population.	El- By the legislature; annually.		extensive, A casting vote in legislative patronage; council, of which he is president. The council possesses the pardoning power, and is a court of appeals, in the last resort. The governor is chancellor and surrogate general.
PENNSYLVANIA 1790.	General assembly; the house of representatives and one fourth of the senate, chosen annually.	First Tuesday in December.	Freehold: citizenship; 3 years' Cuizenship. Senate, age 25, 4 state and 1 county residence, years' state and 1 district resisentators 27, and representatives, 3 years' 24 years of age.	In proportion to taxable mhab-	El- By the people; for 3 years, Elighbe 9 out of 12 years.	Age 30; 7 year' citizenship and residence.	Qualified negative; extensive, uncontrolled official patronage; the pardoning power.
DELAWARE 1762. (Amended 1802.)	General assembly; senate of 15, General assembly; the house of General assembly; the house of Legislative council and general the people every 5th year; house the senate, chosen annually.  of delegates, annually.	First Tuesday in January.	Senators, 25 years of age, 3 years' Freehold; citizenship; 3 years' Cuizenship, state residence. Delegates, 1 state and 1 county residence. Senators 27, and representatives dence. Replaced to the state and 1 county residence.	By counties.	! !	Age 36: 12 years' citizenship Age 30; 7 year' citizenship and and 6 years' residence.	ושו
MARYLAND ' 1776. (Amended.)	General assembly; senate of 15, chesen by electors appointed by the people every 5th year; house of delegates, annually.	First Monday in December.	Senators, 25 years of age, 3 years' state residence. Delegates, 1 year's county residence.	By counties and cities.	By the legislature; annually, By the people; for 3 years. Eligible 3 years out of 7.	Age 25; 5 years' residence.	Official patronage, with advice Extensive, uncontrolled official power.

	, , ,					·;
Pucresor on Death, 3b- vence, 9c.	Council; Number. Election. Qualifica. toon.	Appent- nacnt and Term of Office.	How re. K.	Qualifica- tions of Fo- ters.	Day of Gen-	Provision for amending. Constantion.
Vire-president of the council.	None.		By unpeachment.	Cuzenship: state residence of Two years' residence, and pay- Cuzenship, two years' residence, and an estate worth £50 proclamation year, and county or city, of ment of taxes. Blacks excluded, and payment of taxes, too money.	Second Thesday in October. May adjourn from day to day.	None.
Speaker of the senate.	None.	By the governor; during good heliavior.	By unpeachment; and by the governor, on address of two thinds of the legislature.	Cuzeuship, two years' residence, and payment of taxes.	Second Tuesday in October.	None:
		By the governor; duning good behavior. Justices of the peace- for years.	wior in By unpeachment; and by the mor, on governor, on address of two legisla- thirds of the legislature.	Two years' residence, and pay- ment of tayes. Blacks excluded.	for del- First Tuesday in October.	The legislature may pass hills Arrendments may be passed at Neuc's reneuling the constitution, which, one session, and, if approved by to be valid, must be confirmed at the governor, satisfied by three fourths of the jet. A convenion mext session.
First named of the council, until Speaker of the senate.	Five: elected by legislature; age None. 25, and 3 years residence; advise the prevention; and consent to	Annual good behavior. In a post-more and the peace behavior. In peace of the interior courts for 5, years.	By conviction of unsbehavior in By unpeachment; and by the By unpeachment; and by the By unpeachment a court of law; by governor, on governor, on address of two thads of legisla- 'finds of the legislature, address of two thads of legisla- 'finds of the legislature.	Crizenship: state residence of Two years residence, and pay, Crizenship, two years one year, and county or city, of ment of tayes. Blacks excluded, and payment of taxes	First Monday in October for del- egates; first Monday in Septem- ber, every fifth year, for electors	The legislature may pass bills unculing the constitution, which, to be valid, must be confirmed at next session.

15.9		LE	GISLATURE. —	1		1 4 (	EXECUTIVE
Dais of Constitution	Name and form of Office.	Time of stored Merting.	Qualifica- tions.	Appor- tionment.	Election , Term of Office.	Qualifica-	Porers.
VIRGINIA.	General assembly, annually; General assembly; senate of 15, General assembly; senate and General assembly; house of senate and house of representatives of 124 members, mully.  The freshit of 124 members, mully.  The freshit of senatives.		year county Freehold; district residence.	Senators, one for each county: Senators by distincts; representations of commons, 2 for each county; Senate by districts; house of representatives in proportion to any arrest of commons, 2 for each delegates by countes, and propulation, excluding two fiths non and amount of arcs paid, county, and I for each of cer- boroughs.	nually.		Some official patronage, and the pardoning power, with advice and consent of council.
NORTH CAROLINA 1776.	General assembly; senate and heree of connous, rhosen an- mudly.		and 1	Senate, one for each county; Senate by house of commons, 9 for each delegates county, and 1 for each of cer- boroughs, tun specified towns.	By the legislature; annually, Eligible 3 years out of 6.	Fredold; age 30; 5 years' rest	The pardoning power.
SOUTH CAROLINA 1790. (Amended.)	assembly, annually; General assembly; senate of 15 General assembly; and house of representations half biennally, and house of house of commons, refresentatives of 124 members, mully.		Prechold, or taxable property. Citizenship; freehold, Senators, Freehold, and 3 years' state, I county residence, age 36, 5 years' state residence. Senators, age 25,9 years' citizenshimes, 3 years' state residence. Ship; representatives, 7 years' idence. Blacks excluded.	unty: Senators by districts: represent to artices in proport on to popularithe form and amount of taxes paul.	स्त <u>ी</u> जिल्ला	Freehold and other property: Freehold; age 30; residence Freehold; age 30; 5 years' residence.	The pardonnig power.
υge,	General assembly, annually: senate and house of representatives.	Second Tuesday in January.	Prechold, or taxable property. 3 years' state, I county residence. Senators, age 25,9 years' entrenship; representatives, 7 years' citizenship.	Senators, one for each county: representatives in proportion to population, excluding two fifths of people of color.	=	Freehold and other property: age 30: 12 years' citizenship, and 6 years' gesidence.	Qualified negative: pardoning The pardoning power, power; refrieves only in cases of treason.

<del></del>				11.	1 2 2	h
Successor on Death, Ab- sence, &c.	Council, Number, Election, Qualifications;	Appunt- men and Term of Ofice.	How re- morable.	Qualifica- tions of Fr- ters.	Day of Gen eral Electron	Froriscon for amending Constitution
President of council.	Seven; by legislature, annually. Eight; by legislature, who remove and supply two, every 3 years.	By legislature; good behavior. Justices of the peace by governor and council.	By unpeachment.	county Cinzenship; 2 years' state rest. For senators, freehold and a Same asspreyious to establish-defines; a freehold, or 6 months' year's residence; for house of ment of constitution, district residence and payment commons, a year's residence and of taxes. Blacks excluded, payment of taxes.	Second Monday in October and No day appointed by constitu- No day appointed in constitution. Day of Gendary following, bienmally.	Моне.
Speaker of senate.	Seven; iy legişlature, annııally.	superior courts by By benshiture; good behavior. others as hitherto:	By unperchancut.	For senators, freehold and a year's residence; for house of connons, a year's residence and payment of taxes.	No day appointed by constitu- tion.	
Lieutenant-governor	•	Judges of superior cours by legislature; others as hitherto; good heliavior.	<b>ß</b> y ոորշաշհոռeու.	Cinzenship; 9 years' state rest. For senators, freehold and a dence; a freehold, or 6 months' year's residence; for house of district residence and payment connons, a year's residence and of taxes. Blacks excluded, payment of taxes.	Second Monday in October and day following, bienmally.	may be exmand the leg may be n
President of the senate.	None.	Elected by the prople; Judges of Judges of superior courts by superior courts for 3 years; of legislature; others as lutherto; the meror courts, and justices of good behavior.	. ا	Citizenship, six months' county readence, and payment of taxes if assessed.	First Monday in November.	By two thirds of the legislature at two successive sessions.

484	•		ABSTRACT	о туп	 E		,
Date of Constitution.	Name and Term	Time of stated	TATURE	Apper-	Election : Term of Office	Qualifica-	EXECUTIVE.
OHIO 1×02.	General assembly; house of representatives and one half the senate, chosen annually.	Fust Monday in December.	The years'state and I compy Currenship. Sendors, age 35, Currenship; payment of taxes sadence; send a fiechold of 20 of years' state, I destrate the sendone; Sendons age 30, 2 years' districtives, age 21, 2 years' readence; representatives, age state, and I district residence.  [25, I years' county residence.	In proportion to white male pequalation, above 21 years of	nially. Eli-	rechold of 500 geres, age 35; Age 35; entreeding; 6 years' Age 30; 12 years' ritizenship; 4 Qualifications' residence.	The pardoning power.
KENTUCKY IZBO	General assembly; the house of representatives and one fourth of the senate, chosen annually.	September, Pust Manday in November,	Curenship, Senators, age 35, departmenteres, repus analyse, age 24, 2 years sate, and I define residence.	In proportion to the number of qualified electors.	By the people; quadriennally, Eligible I out of 11 years.	Age 35; curan-hip; 6 years' residence.	Qualified regaine; official put-The pardonng power, tonge, with consent of senate; the pardonng power; reprieves -
TENNESSEE 1295.	General assembly; senate one General assembly, senate and General assembly; the house of General assembly; house of representatives, closen representatives and one fourth of resentatives and one half the and Term sentatives annually.	Thad Monday in September, of	years' state, and Arcount, acceptant and a free hold of 20 0	In proportion to white popula- by proportion to the number of In proportion to white male male uon, uon, propulation, above 21 years of age.	By the people : bennally, 131- gable 6 out of 2 years.	Freduid of 500 geres, age 35; 4 years' residence.	The pardonnig power.
MISSISSIPPI 1817.	General assembly; senate one third annually, house of repre- sentatives annually.	First Monday in November.	Catzenship: freehold, or an mage terest in real estate. Senators, result age 2844 years state, I district resources, representatives, age 22, 2 years state, I district residence.	In Proportion to white popula-	By the people: beamally.	Freehold; age 30; 30 years F	Qualified negative; the pardon-Ting power, except for treason. for which consent of senate necessary.

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Successor on Death, 3b- sence, 4c.	Council, Number; Election, Qualifications; Powers.	Aprome- ment and Term of Office.	How re- morable.	Qualifica- tions of Vo- ters.	Day of Gen- eral Election.	Procum amendi Constitut
	None.	By legislature for T years. Jus- uces of the peace by the people for 3 years.	By impeachment.	Curvendup, 2 year's state, or I One year's residence and being distinct residence. Blacks even assessed with taxes, or laboring on highway. Blacks excluded.	Second Tuesday in October.	The sense of the people may be The sense of the people may be The sense of the people may be taken for calling a convention, taken for calling a convention for calling a c
Lieutenant-governor, who is, ex Speaker of senate.	None.	By governor; good behavior.	voz ls o	Crizenship; I year's stare, and A freehold, or 6 months' county Cuzenship. 2 year's state, or I One year's residence and being 6 months' district residence, pay residence.  Cluded.  Cluded.  Cluded.  Cluded.  Cluded.  Cluded.  Cluded.	Fast Mo be conta of any o	The sense of the people may be taken for calling a convention, when the legislature pass a law for that purpose within the first 90 days of their stated annual session.
is, er Speaker of senate.	None.	davior, By legislature; good behavior by law.	By unpeachment.	A freehold, or 6 months' county residence.	Bennally ; on the first Thursday in August, and day following.	The sense of the people may by taken for calling a convention when two thirds of the legisla ture deem it necessary.
Lieutenant-governor, who is, ct 3	1	ER legislature: good behavior, will to. Justices of the peace for such term as may be fixed by law.	By impeachment; and by gover- By unpeachment. nor, on address of \$ of leg. The judge must be heard in defence.	Citizenship; I year's state, and A freehole 6 months district residence, pay- residence, ment of taxes, or eurolinent in the milita. Blacks excluded.	Fu-c Monday in August, and	The sen-s of the people may be taken for calling a convention, when two thirds of the legiclature deem it necessary.

	1	_ Li	EGISLATURE. —	_		1		EXECUTIVE.
Date of Constitution.	Name and Term of Office.	Merting	Qualfira	•	Appor- tionment.	Election . Term of Office.	Qualifica-	EXECUTIVE.
ALABAMA.	General assembly; house of representatives and one than of senate, chosen amountly.	her.	Citizenship; 2 years' state and 1 detrict residence. Senators 27 years of age. Blacks excluded.		In proportion to white population.	By the people; quadran-By the people; biennially, mally. [The legislature Engible 4 out of 6 years, selection of the two higher on the poll   Figure 1 ble every second term.	Tree hold of \$5000; age 48; a native crizen 35; cutzenship; t) years of the U. States; 4 years to an accordance.	Qualtied negative; the lardoing power; in cases of treason, consent of sen- ate necessity.
1,01781 ANA	General assembly: Ironse of repu sentances and one half the senate, chosen bremnally.		Cuzensup, medodd. Senators, age 27, 1 years, state, 1 district residence; representatives, 2 years, state, 1 cuty residence. Blacks eveluded.		Kepe southes in pagention to qualified electors; sendos hy permanent fixed districts,	By the people; quadran- mally. (The legislature selections of the two high- est on the poll]. Fachgi- ble every second term.	Frechold of \$5000; age 35; enzemblip; 6 years residence.	Qualified negative: off- Qualified ne cul partoning powing power, with consent of of twason, consentie: r-pièves only in ate necessiry.
INDIANA • INDIANA •	General assembly: the General assembly; house General assembly; house General assembly; house house of representatives of representatives and one of representatives and one first and one fall of the sen-thard of senate, chosen laft the senate, chosen that of senate, chosen annually.  First Monday in Decem The Monday in Decem-Tirs Monday in January, Fourth Monday in Octo.	ber, every second year ber.	that te sidence; payment the former of several properties of the sidence; payment to sidence; payment to sidence; payment to sidence; payment to sidence; payment, good taxes; Senators, age state, I deduct residence; Senators, 27 years of age, quelifier years of age, greater to age of age, greater to age of age, greater of age.  State, I cuty residence.		proportion to write in proportion to white Repu-southtres in proportion proportion proportion.  The proportion of age, sentence in performance in proportion.  The proportion is a proportion of a general proportion.	By the peoples quadrent By the people; quadrent, By the people, thennally mally. Incligable every mally medically every Euclide 6 m any term of second term.	Age 30: 30 years' onten a Age 30, 10 years' effican- ship: 2 years' residence, ship: 5 years residence.	Qualified negative ever Qualified negative: offi-Qualified negative; othe Qualified negative; the Conject Official patron- cial putronage, with con-cial partioning power; in cases age, with consent of senter senate; partioning nower, with consent of of treason, consent of senate; the prodoung power, power, canter repriet repriets only in an necessary.
	General assembly; the house of representatives and one half of the sen- are chosen becumally Unst Monday in Decem	ber, every second year	that is selence; payment of taxes; selence; payment of taxes.		population.	By the people; quadrentially Inchgible every second term,		Qualified negative see Qualific Connect. Official partient of a n-sent of and age, with consent of a n-sent of are; the pendorung power, power.
MISSOURI 1820.	General assembly; the house of representatives and one half of senate; chosen bremnally. First Monday in Novem-	Chrench second year	frict residence, avaiton, Schators, age 30, Iyens, State residence, represen- tatives, age 21, 2 years state residence. Black, excluded.	In monthstian to white	male population	By the people? quaderen- nially. Inchgible every second term.	Age 35; native bonnentizen of the U. States, or an in- habitant of Mesonir at the time of cession to the U.S.	Qualified negative; official patronage, with consent of senate; purdoning power.

CONSTITUTIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.						
Proth, Ab-	Vot veil., Flumber., Fluctions., Qualifica-	Appoint ment and Lerm of L.	Him re- AHVI	Qualifica-	Day of Gen	Prostann Creektuion
		1)		nazonship: I year's state, ad 3 months, district ress in lenge. Blacks excluded.	First Monday in August, and day following, until altered by law.	
resident of the senate.	Nome.	governot: good be-	By unpared funent; and by By unpeachment; and by governot, on address of governot, on address of governot, or the judge three fourths of the legis- of legislature. The judge must be seard in defence must be seard in defence.	Curvenship 1 year's resolute; 1 year's count. Curzenship: 1 year's state, quadorated not not the new Blacks of the new Blacks excluded. The second of the new Blacks excluded.	Bremally; on the first Bremally, on the first First Monday in Angust. Bremally; on the first Biennally, on the first Bremally; on the fir	Two that of the legisla-The sense of the people The sense of the people to end for by the people tue may propose amendation by propose amoundance of the legislation. When two year, as to calling a con-two successive years, the ments, which is ratified ments which may be rate a convention, when two year, as to calling a con-two successive years, the people at the next field by two thirds of the limits of the legislature vention.  In legislature at then deem it necessary.  In legislature at then deem it necessary.
cuterant-governor, who P or officia, president of c senate.		By governor for 7 years By go Instruction of the peace layton clear by the people for		Curvership 1 year's resolution Blacks excluded	Fust Monday in Angust.	The sare of the prople to be taken every twelfth year, as to calling a con- vention.
Licatemant-governor, who List of the best of the best pate.	The judges of the superne, None- court, with the governor, form a council, which per- asses a qualified negative	o, herbithe acts  19, herbithe acts  bayon	Sympga liment, and by governot, on addises of wo thinks of legislature.	antis' residence veluded.	Bernually, on the first Monday in August.	The sense of the people The swamps be taken for calling to be to a convention, when two year, as thinks of the legislature vention deem it necessity.
-governor, who	None.	By governor; good be 1P, legelattice; good be 1By governor for 7 years By By governor; good be 1P, legelattice; good be 1By for the peace have havior untileged 65.	By impeachnegit; by cov- By impea liment, and by By impeaching it ernor, on addies of a of governo, on addies of legislature. The judge two thirds of legislature.	Carcustant a year's tate in and 3 months district rest. Blacks a year's total blacks a year's total blacks a year's total blacks.	Bremally; on the first Monday in August	Two thirds of the legislas The ser ture may propose amound may be ments which may be rate, a conve fied by two thirds of the thirds next legislature at their deem if

The powers REMARKS.—Legislature. of the legislature, being well known, and nearly similar in all the states, are not enumerated in the preceding table. It may be proper to mention here, however, that the senate have no power to originate money bills, excepting in the states of Connecticut, New York, Ohio, North Carolina, Tennessee, Illinois and Missouri: and that, in New Jersey and Maryland, the senate can neither originate nor alter In Virginia, all laws originate such billin the house of representatives. Tho power of impeachment before the senate is vested in the house of representatives by all the state constitutions, except those of Maryland, Virginia and North Carolina. Maryland appears to have no court of impeachment, judicial officers being removable by conviction of misbehavior in a court of law. In Virginia, the house of delegates impeach before the court of appeals. In North Carolina, state officers may be impeached before any state court of supreme pursiletion, either by the general assembly, or by presentment of the grand jury of the court. No pardoning power any where exerts in cases of impeachment.—In Alabam i.e i. vislon and new digest of eight and eriminal law is to be made decennally - In Alabama, Indiana. Illinois and Misson: the legislatine are restricted in their power of creeting bank-.

Eventure. The duties of the executives, in addition to those enumerated in the table, are, to superintend the execution of the laws, and to act as commandersin-chief of the indition. In Louisiana, the governor must visit the different countries at least once in two years, to inition funcional the general condition of the nebula, and the general condition of the country.—Wassachusetts is the only state whose constitution gives tilles to the offeris of government. The governor is confided his excellency, the featurement-govern his horon.

Religion. In the United States, every

Religion. In the United States, every denomination of religiou is equally under the protection of the law. In a few of the states, however, ceraan modes of helief are required as qual-nearons for office. In Massichusetts and Maryland, the declaration of a behef in the Christian religion is required to qualify for office. In New Jersey, no Protestant can be denied any civil right on account of his religious principles. In Pennsylvania, Mississippi and Tennessee, the behef in a God, and a future state of rewards and punishments, is required as a qualification for office. In N. Carolina, no one denying the muth of

the Protestant religion, or the divine authority of the Old or New Testument, or whose religious principles are incompanble with the freedom and safety of the state, can hold a civil office. In the other states, no religious test is required.— Persons conscientiously scrupulous of taking an oath, are every where permitted to substitute a solemii affirmation; and this is recognised by all the constitutions. except these of Virginia and North Carohua, and the charter of Rhode Island, a higtus which is supplied in those states by law.—Those who are conscientiously serupulous of bearing arms, are every where allowed to pay an equivalent for, personal service. In Tennessee, the legis lature are enjoined to "pass laws exempting citizens belonging to any sect or denonumation of religion, the tenets of which are known to be opposed to the bearing of arms, from attending private and general musters." In Manie, "persons of the denominations of Shakers or Quakers" may be exempted from military duty.-Ministers of the gospel are not eligible as legislators in Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina and Tennessee. In South Carohua, Kentucky and Mississippi, they are cligible neither as governors nor legislators. In Missouri, the only civil office they can hold is that of justice of the peace: while in New York, Delaware and Louisiana, they are not eligible to any office whatever. New Hampshire and Massachusetts are the only states whose constitutions make provision for religious establishments. In New Hampshire, the legislatine is empowered to authorize, and in Massachus etis the legislature is enjoined to require, the several towns, parishes, &c., in the state, to make adequate provision, at their own expense, for the support and maintenance of Protestart ministers of the çospel.

In Central and South America, a number of constitutions have been established willian this century. All, with the exception of the monarchical constitution of the Brazils, and the transient imperial system of the Mexican empire under Innbide, who was elected emperor May 18, 1822, are republican, modelled, in most respects, after the constitution of the U. States, in regard to the division of powers among the logislative, judiciary and executive bodies, &c. In Mexico, Central Anterica, and the United Provinces of La Plata, there exist federal governments, i. e. unions of different states, like that of the U. States: the other republies have central

governments. The government of Spain, in her South American colonies, was so defective, the territory of these so immense, and the population so scattered, that, when the Spanish yoke was thrown off, the elements of an independent and free government, in the new states, were necessarily so few, that, ever since their respective declarations of independence, they have been in a state of agitation; and many of them are likely to remain so for a long time to come, because the people are wofully deficient in education and Industry-two of the main grounds of real liberty and of a settled order of things; and it is one of the most difficult tasks for a nation, from which tyranny has withheld the means of education, to acquire the habits which fit men for independence, after shaking off the yoke of their oppressors, which is generally the easiest part of a revolution. History shows that far more internal convulsions are caused by ignorance, and the violence which springs from it, than by the ambition of aspiring individuals. Since the condition of South America is, at present, so unsettled, it would be of little use to causmerate the different constitutions existing there, which will probably undergo many changes; and we must refer the reader to the articles on the respective countries, in which he will find their history brought down to the time of the preparation of the articles. Brazil received its present constitution in 1824. It was sworn to by the emperor March 25 of that year. If has several new features. The four branches of civil authority -- the legislative, the medutive, the executive and the judicial—originate from the transfer of power by the people. The government is monaichical, hereditary and representative. The representation of the Brazilian nation consists of the emperor and the general assembly—a body composed of two chambers, that of the deputies, chosen for four years, and that of the senators, chosen by the emperor from the election-lists. With the former rests the power of originating bills for the imposition of taxes and the levying of soldiers, as well as of proposing a change of dynasty. The latter retain their dignity for life. The emperor has the executive and mediatorial authority, but his reto is not absolute. He cannot refuse his sanction to a bill equally Approved by two legislative assemblies. The press is free. The treaty with Portugal, Nov. 15, 1825, has somewhat of the character of a fundamental law. Paraguay is governed by doctor Francia, without a con-

stitution, and the former kingdom of Hayti received a constitution in 1811. The democratic constitution of the republic of Hayti, dated Jan. 27, 1807, was renewed in 1816; and when the kingdom was abolished in 1820, and the Spanish part of the island was united with the republic, in 1822, the constitution of 1816 was established for the whole island. It is fashioned after the constitution of the U. States; has a house of representatives, a sengte and president. Indians, Negroes, Mulattoes and Mestizous only are allowed to become entrens.\* (See the articles Corporation and Estates.)

CONSTITUTIONISTS. (See Unigenitus.) CONSTITUTIONNIL, LA (French; The Constitutional), a daily paper in Paris. In Lingland and the U. States, no party, however much it may be opposed to others, thinks of abolishing the constitution or constitutional liberty: the word constitutional, therefore, cannot be used in these two countries as designating a party. Very different is the case in France—a difference which must be constantly kept in mind, if we wish to understand the present political proceedings in that country, or to compare them with American and British politics. In France, there really exists a powerful party, which mass at restoring the good old times, and destroying the Che to. (q.v.) The word constitutional, therefore, designates, in France, the party opposed to the one just mentioned embracing, however, many varieties of opinion. The paper called Le Constitutionnel is one of the ablest journals of the age. It is liberal, but moderate and cautions. Etienne, Jay and Tissot are the chief editors - 51% or eight proprietors contrib-Over the whole is a directeur en clef, and for the different branches there are from 10 to 12 editors. Many of the first savents are often engaged to furmsh a certain number of original articles

The most movel phenomena (2), constitutional usines is it is the constitution of rather constituent law, which the active routha of Fgypt has recently given to his subjects. An assembly has met accordingly at Caro consisting of the ministers of the spach a the mores of the learned in the law, the superintendents of minimal times conducted on government account (the gradia is the most active metchant and manufacturer of his readm), the relative and members of disparts to the number of 23, and the cherikestein, of or heads of villages who form the representatives of the people and are 93 in rumber, chaeffy from Lower Egypt. The session was opened by a long special from Iraham Pacha the son of the pacha of Egypt. The above is an extract from the Course of Singuise. We have, it is true, no other information, but, if there is any truth in the statement it is cottainly of great interest.

in the course of the year. In like manner, the famous M. Malte-Brun was employed to write, every month, a geographical article for the Journal des Debats, for a very high sum. The Constitutionnel occupies from 8 to 10 presses, working day and night. The monthly expense of the paper amounts to 50,000 francs. muneration which is paid for single contributions is very high. For an article of one column, or one and a half, generally 100 to 120, sometimes 150, francs are paid. It was established, in 1815, by 15 shareholders, and has from 18 to 20,000 sub-cribers—a greater number than any other French paper, the Journal des Debats, which comes next to it, having only from 13,000 to 14,000. In the beginning, a share of the Constitutionnel cost 30,000 francs; now it costs 100,000. A great variety of topics is treated of in this paper, embracing not only politics, but the sciences and arts, and, as interesting to general readers, it may be recommended in preference to any other Prench newspaper

Construction, in politics, is the interpretation of the fundamental law of the state. Wherever there is such againdamental law, a difference of opinion must exist respecting the meaning of ecitain passages, as no phraseology but the mathematical is capable of perfect precision. Such construction is therefore a copionsource of party strile. In several states, there have been paraes, which declared war against all construction of the fundamental law, and insisted upon the execution of its obvious meaning, forgetting that this obvious meaning, as they called it, was nothing but their own construction of its provisions. Such difference of opinion must exist in regard to every written code, political or religious. This the Protestants declared, at the diet of Augsburg, that they would not allow any construction of the Bible, saice its obvious meaning expressed God's will. The con-struction of the fundamental law, then, wherever persons are united in one soons ty, is of vital importance, and particularly so in politics. If the construction of the constitution, that is, the declaration of its meaning in doubtful points, is unprovided for, and left, as has been the case in several of the modern monarchies, to the executive, liberty may be considered as destinute of any bulwark. The U. States of America are the first state, at least of any magnitude, which has intrusted the construction of the constitution, in cases of dispute between the government and people, to a tribunal provided by the

instrument itself. This tribunal is the supreme court of the U. States.

Consul; a name given, 1. to the two highest magistrates in the republic of Rome, from whom it passed to certain high officers under the emperors; 2. the designation of the three highest magistrates of the French republic, during a certain period; 3. the title, at present, of certain officers of a diplomatico-commer-

cial character.

I. In Rome, after the kings had been . expelled, two consuls were placed at the head of the senate, the body in whose hands was the administration of the republic; consul signifying advisor, counsellor., These officers were to be annually elected. In Greek, they were called i-a- (the highest). Consuls were, at first, chosen only from among the patricians; as a later period, also from the plebenans. In some cases, both the consuls were plebecaus, but this was an exception to the general rule. In order to be eligible to the consulship, the candidate was to be 45 years of age tatas consideris). this law was frequently violated. Pompey was made consul in his 30th, Valerius Corvie in his Tid. Scipio Africanus, the elder, in his 25th, and the younger Scipio in his 38th year. Nobody was to be recleeted consul till after an interval of 10 years. But this law was also disregarded, Marins was reclegied immediately. The candidate was required, by law, to be no Rome at the time of the election; but this lew was not better regarded than the oth-The election of the consuls took place in the comitia centuriata, in the campus Martaes. One of the existing consulpresided. He who hald most votes was His name was the called consul prior first in the fisti. He also first received the *fascis* (q. v.), and usually presided at the election of the magistrates for the next vear. The time of election varied at dif-  $\epsilon$ ferent periods The consuls elect were called consules designati. They entered on their other, on the first of January, by sacrificing and praying in the capitol, after receiving the congratulations of the senate and people. Within five days afterwards, they were obliged to repent the oath which they had taken when elected, that they would not injure the republic, and that they would govern according to the laws. A similar oath that they had so dong, was required of them when they left their office. The exterior marks of honor of the consuls (insignia) were the same with those of the former kings, excepting the crown; and, instead of a sceptre, they had a

staff of ivory (scipio eburneus). Their toga was lined with purple (toga pratexta); under the emperors, it was embroidered. They sat upon an ornamented chair (sella curulis). Twelve lictors, with the fasces and axes, preceded them. In the beginning, the lictors, with fasces, marched before each; but Valerus Publicola made a law, that, in the city, they should precede only one. After that time, the consuls enjoyed this honor, respectively, in alternate months. The one who was not preceded by the fasces had a public slave going before him (accensus), and the heters following The consul who was first elected. or who had most children, or, if the mimber was equal, whose wife was living, or who had most votes, first received the fasces cum securibus. Whoever met the consul gave way to him, uncovered his head, descended from his horse, or rose, if he happened to be seated. If the consul saw any one neglect this form of respect, he ordered the lictor to punish hen (animadvertere). The annals of state were called fasti consulares, and particular yearwere designated by the names of the consuls then in other. Instead of saying, for instance, A. U. C. 690, it was said M. Tullio Cicerone et. L. Antonio consul.bus; hence numerare multos consules, instead of multos annos. In order to understand the authority of the consuls, it roust be kept in mind, that, in the time of the Roman republic, the powers of the different branches of government were by no means kept so distinct as with us, and therefore much greater opportunity was then afforded for the assumption of undue authority. The division of powers is one of the most impostant inventions in the art of governing, and affords one of the greatest protections of liberty; much greater than is afforded by republicanism, or any form of government, without it. We find united in the consuls, to a great degree, the executive, judiciary and legis! tive functions. In the beginning of the republic, the authority of the consuls was almost as great as that of the preceding kings. They could declare war, conclude peace, make alliances, and even order a entizen to be put to death; hence Cicero ascribes to them regiam potestatem (1 egg. in. 3). But Valerius Publicola took the axe out of their fasces, that is, deprived them of their right over the lives of the citizens, and left them, at least while in the city, only the right to decree the punishment of scourging. Without the city, when they had the command over the army, they had the axe in the fusces, that

is, the power to condemn to death. Publicola had a law enacted allowing appeals from the consuls to the people. greatest check was put upon the consular power by the establishment of the tribunes of the people, who had the right to oppose every measure of the consuls. Yet their power remained very great. They stood, in reality, at the head of the whole republic: all other officers were under them, the tribunes of the people only excepted: they convoked the senate, proposed what they thought fit, and executed the laws. Laws proposed by them were generally called by their name. They received all despatches from the provinces and foreign kings, and gave audience to foreign ambassadors. In times of emergency, the consular power was still further increased by the well known decree, viderant, vel darent operam, ne quid detrimenti respublica caperet, by which they received infimited power, and could even sentence to death without trial, levy troops, and make war without the resolve of the people tiret . obtained. If a sudden riot took place, the consuls called the citizens to arms by the word- qui rempublicam salvam esse velit. me seguatur—equivalent to the reading of the not act with us. At the beginning of their term of other, the consuls divided the provinces among them by agreement or lot Province, at first, signified a certam business committed to the consul, as the command of an army. By and by, it came to denote conquered countries. these consuls were sent by the senate as governors, after laying down their office. They were then called proconsules. A citizen who had been consul was called consularis, and had a higher rank than other senators. Pompey enacted a law that a consul should not be sent to a province until five years after he had laid down his office, and Casar decreed that he should remain there only for two years. Under the emperors, the consular dignity sunk to a mere shadow, until Caligual wished to make his horse consul. Many consuls, at this period, were appointed in one year, until Constantine again appointed two annually, after which the office was aboushed by Justinian. The pomp of the consuls, under the emperors, was still greater than during the republic. Consul honorarius was a titular officer, with the rank, but without the power, of a consul. This dignity was first conferred under Cæsar.

II. In France, the directorial government (third constitution) was abolished by the revolution of the 18th Brumaire, of the year 8 of the republic (Nov. 9, 1799), and

a provisional consular government, consisting of Bonapurte, Seves and Roger Ducos, established the fourth constitution, which was proclaimed Dec. 15, by which France was declared a republic under a government of consuls. Three elective consuls (Bonaparte, Cambaceres, Lebrun, each with 500,000 francs annually) had abmost uncontrolled executive authority, while the legislative power was in the hands of the tribunate and the legislative assembly: a conservative senate was also elected. But as early as Aug. 2, 1802; Bonaparte was proclaimed first consul for life, and thus the constitution of France became again monarchical. He had the power of naming his successor, proposing the two other consuls, appointing the senators, counsellors of state, and the presidents of the council of the people, which he could assemble, and determine the length of their sessions at his pleasure; he could also assemble and dissolve the legislative body at his will. The courts of justice, civil and criminal, were subjected to his control: the right of pardoning was put into this hands, and the number of the members of the tribunate was himted to half of what it had been. He was to manage the revenues and the expenditure of the state, provide for the safety of the people at home, and for the defence of the country abroad, exercise supreme command over the forces maintain political connexions with foreign countries, comain all treaties, and, in critical times, might even Thus the first suspend the constitution consul united joyal dignity with royal authority, and, that he might the better retain both, the civil list was increased to 6,000,000 frames, and, Aug. 15, 1802, the birth-day of the first consul, a consular court was instituted at St. Cloud, and all the former court discipling reestablished. Nothing now remained for the complete restoration of monarchy, but to make Bonaparte's dignity hereditary in his family by law, as it was already, in point of fact, by his power of manning his successor. The first consuls were also the last; the one became emperor, the others princes. On the first coms struck after Napoleon's elevation as emperor, he called houself empercur de la republique Française.

III. Since the time of the crusades, officers called consuls have existed in different states, for the purpose of giving decisions, affording protection, or verifying facts and occurrences, relating to maritime and commercial affairs. The Italian states, in particular, took advantage of the crusades procure permission from the Asiatic

princes to send such persons as protectors of merchants from their own country into the domains of these princes, and their example was followed by other European nations, for the protection of their commerce in the Levant, and in Africa; and, since the 15th and 16th centuries, the same officers have also been established in European countries, to facilitate the intercourse of the respective nations, so that the commercial consuls, both in Europe and other parts of the world, are now very numerous. The right of nominating consuls is in the hands of the supreme power, which, however, can send them only where treaties or ancient customs authorize their appointment. The duty of this officer is to afford protection and assistance to navigators or merchants of his nation, and to watch over the fulfilment of commercial treaties. In point of authorny, however, the consuls in the Levant and Africa are different from those in Europe and America, because the former have also eval jurisdiction over their countrymen. They are invested with much more of a diplomatic character than the latter. Consuls are regarded by some as numsters, others, however, will not acknowledge them as such. They certainly do not stand on the same footing with even the lowest degree of acknowledged diplontane persons, because they have no ' letters of credence, but merely patents of appointment, which must be confirmed by the government to which they are sent. They therefore do not empty the privileges of manisters : ter merance, exemption from the purisherion of the courts of the foreign country; and from taxes, the right of having divine service performed in their resciences, &c Generally, they are subect to the civil authorities of the place where they reside,--Consul-general is a consul appointed for several places, or over several consuls. Sometimes wicealignest always exempt from unhary service, for which reason the consulship is often sought for. Generally, consuls are merchants, without remuneration, except that arising from fees, which sometimes amount to considerable sums. Very often consuls are not citizens of the countries for which they act.

CONNUTA (Ital.) was a branch of the administration in the Italian republic, and the kingdom of Italy which succeeded. It corresponded to a council of state. It consisted of eight persons, and had chiefly the direction of foreign affairs and diplomacy.

Consumption, in political economy, is the use and wearing out of the products of industry, or of all things having an exchangeable value. This destruction, by putting things to the uses for which they are designed, is very different in different things; nor are the wants of society limited to the use of things having an exchangeable value. The air and the water are as necessary, in the economy of life, as the earth and its products; and yet neither the air nor water, ordinarily, bears a price. The latter, however, is sometimes a subject of commerce, especially in large cities; in the city of Madrid, for exam-ple. The earth, on the other hand, is a subject of monopoly in all countries where any progress has been made in cryshzation. But, uplike its products, it is not always deteriorated by use; on the contrary, if skilfully cultivated, its value is mereased. In respect to the products, too, there is a difference; some are destroyed, or, in other words, reduced to their elements, by use, as provisions. Others, as the precious stones, are not necessarily destroyed by time or use. The in talordinardy, pass through various formsem a variety of manufactures, before they are wasted and lost in rust; and some products, being destroyed in one form, are converted into materials for use in another. The remnants of linen and cotton fabrics, for instance, supply materials for paper; and so the wood and non of a ship, on ceasing to be useful, in their combination, for the purposes of navigation. still supply, the one, fuel, the other, matemals for the foundenes of nen. The greater the advancement of the arts, the more extensively will the remnants of consumpthe production of articles of another form. The arts will even convert the destruction of war into the materials for new production. The bones left on the field of Was terioo have been carefully collected, and transported to England, to manufic the lands. The merease of population, and the progress of the arts, introduce a thousand ways of gleaning the relies of one kind of con imprior to supply the materials of another. This is one of the absolife gains of resources consequent upon the advance of civilization. In regard to consumption, the remarks and reasoning of Adam Smith have led to some erroneous prejudices, though his positions are, in some respects, just. He assumes, for instance, that all the stock of society, including the improvements on the lands, are the result of savings, or the excess of

the results of labor over the demands for immediate consumption; and this is, no doubt, true; but the inference which is, and too often, made, that the great object of a nation should be to save the fruits of its labor, as the surest means of wealth and prosperity, is by no means true in its full extent. If, for instance, a community has saved the products of its labor to the amount of \$1000, for which sum it imports from abroad, and introduces into use, a more perfect kind of plough, and the art of making it, or the art of making a better hat, or screw, or saw, with the same labor,—the amount saved being expended for this purpose, the numerical possessions, or the computed capital stock, of that community, is thereby diminished; and yet the aggregate productive capacity is increased. This lets us into a principle of national economy, which is too fiequently overlooked, namely, that the means of prosperity—the national wealth —consists more in the capacity for production than in actual possessions. far as the capital, or nominal wealth, consists in the emplements of production, and the accommodations for the shelter of the inhabitants, they are both a part of the individad wealth and national resources. But a vast p sportion of the productive facilities of a people do not exist in the form of property, and are not marketable articles. Of this description are the arts, and thos characteristics of a community. which enable the people to maintain good laws, and perpetuate then political institutions All the consumption, directed to the promotion of these, is, in the strictest sense, economical, and all the saving of stock, which riight be devoted to these obtion of one kind supply the materials for spects, by a consumption for that purpose, is to wasteful and short-sighted economy. The great business of society, in an economical view, is production and consumption; and a great production without a. corresponding consumption of products cannot for a long time be continued. The notions about the destructive tendency of luxury are, therefore, preposterous, as a general proposition, for it proposes thrift and saving for no purpose. Suppose a whole nation to act fully up to the notions menleated by doctor Franklin, what would be the result but universal idleness? for, all being intent on saving that is, on not consumming, there would, of course, cease to be any encouragement or demand for production. This is the condition of savage hie, imposed by a necessity resulting from ignorance, improvidence and indolence. To keep the streams of production in ac-

tive flow, consumption is necessary; and the consumption, which directly and steadily promotes production is, in fact, promotive of public wealth. We do not mean to deny, that the expenditures of a man who exceeds his means of payment will be injunous, not only to hmuself, but also to the community; for he may annihilate the capital of those who give him credit, and, since their industry may depend on their capital, which supplies them with tools to work with, materials to work upon, and a stock of clothing, foold and accommodations, until they can obtain the returns of their industry by a sale of its products, the loss of this capital, by trusting it to one who never pays them, is a destruction of their industry. Hoarding, on the other hand, though not so injurious, yet, if too generally prevalent, may have the effect of paralyzing production, and stifling and enteebling the economical energies of a people, by diminishing the mouves to industry. In a healthy state of the national industry, therefore, the consumption of products should bear a just proportion to production. As long as enough is saved to supply all the mercase of demand for a stock of implements and materials, and make all the improvements, of a permanent nature, of which the country is susceptible such as canals, roads, bridges, &c.,-which are, indeed, all of them, only different modes of present consumption of the firsts of labor of various kinds to reproduce others,- it is much better, as a general rule, that the remainder of the products of industry should be expended in luxures, than that they should not be produced at all. In regard to luxurre-meluding in this term all the expenditures made for the gratification of appetite, taste or vainty—the dispositions of men, in general, will sufficiently mehne them to these. There is no necessity of meuleating the utility of such expendances as encouragements to industry. Against the importunity of the appetites and desires of men, and against improvidence and thoughtles-ness of the future, doctor Franklin's lessons of economy are of great utility. But, looking at the whole mass of society as a great engine of production and consumption, we should inculcate a different set of maxims, based on more comprehensive principles. The example of doctor Franklin hinself would he a practical lesson, in the respect; for he was not illiberal of his time, or labor, cromoney, in promoting those expenditures which had the advancement of sowity for their object. These are often

such as gratify no immediate appetite or They look to the future. Then tuste. greatest encouragement is the honor which is paid to them by the public opinion; for if a man gains more distinction by encouraging a useful or ornamental art founding a school, or contributing to the construction of a public work, than by riding in a coach, a generous motive is held out to him to turn a part of the general consumption, of which his resources give him the control, into those channels, 'The tastes and habits of thinking of a people determine the direction of a vast proportion of the general consumption: and the direction and amount of this consumption again determine, in a great degree, those of production. When we say that production should be encouraged. it is only inculcating, in other words, the maxim that consumption should be encounaged; for the one will, in every community, bear a pretty near proportion to the other; and the object of a liberal, enlightened policy is, to swell the amount of both; and the object of a wise and philanthropical policy is, to direct them to objects promotive of the physical comfort and moral and intellectual improvement of a people. We are, however, to evoid the error of supposing, that all the causes which go to swell the aggregate of production and consumption, are beneficial in their operation. If, for example, all the rents of the lands, as under the feudal system, are assigned to a few, who, by a luxurous and expensive style of living, consume the creater part of the produce of the labor of the other members of the community, leaving them no more than barely enough to sestam life, and defend them against the elements, though such a community may present a gorgeous exhibition of individual voulth, yet the condition of a great part of its members is little better than that of savages. This was the ten-dency of society under the foudal system, and all the ecclesiastical systems, founded under the auspices of the church of Rome. In such communities, every tax, and every superfluous product, passes into a vortex remote from the interests, comforts and wants of the mass of the population. The consumption ought to be so distributed, as to give every one some just share, in proportion to his labor and services. A preeisely equal and just apportionment of the fruits of labor, and the profits of the use of the earth, cannot be made in any country; for the rights of property must be guarded, or industry will dwindle away. But the laws may do much, and the pre-

vailing habits of thinking, and principles and motives of action, of a people, still more, towards assigning to every kind of industry, and every species of talent, and , . skill, its fair proportion of the general consumption, and in such a way as not to check, but to augment, the general mass of things produced and consumed. The benefits of commerce do not consist so much in the mass of wealth, which it may be the means of accumulating, or in its directly employing a great many persons, as in the facilities it gives for augmenting the general mass of production and consumption; and, in this respect, internal extent and variety of products, is far more important than foreign, since the mutual exchanges of the products of labor made among the inhabitants of such a country are much greater, in amount, than those made between the whole country and other nations.

Consumption, in medicine. (See Altro-

phy.)

Contagion (contagio; from contango, to meet or touch each other). This word properly imports the application of any poisonous matter to the body through the , medium of touch. It is applied to the action of those very subtile particles ansing from putrid substances, or from per ous laboring under certein diseases. which communicate the diseases to oth-·ers; as the contagion of putrid fever, the effluvia of dead annual or vegetable substances, the miasmata of bogs and fens, the virus of small-pox, hus venerea, & c., & c. The principal diseases excited by poisonons miasmata are, internation, remittent and yellow fevers, dysentery and typhus. The last is generated in the human body. itself, and is sometimes called the typhoid Some miasmata are produced tinnes. tiom most vegetable matter, in some unknown state of decomposition. contagious virus of the plague, smallpox, measles, chincough, cynanche maligna, and searlet fever, as well as of typhus and the pal fever, operates to a much more limited distance through the medium of the atmosphere than the marsh miasmata. Connect of a diseased person is said to be necessary for the communication of plague; and approach within two or three yards of him for that of typhus. The Walcheren minimate extended their pestilential influence to vessels riding at anchor, fully a quarter of a mile from the shore. The chemical nature of all these poisonous effluvia is little understood. They undoubtedly consist, however, of hy-

drogen, united with sulphur, phosphorus, carbon and azote, in unknown proportions and unknown states of combination. The proper neutralizers or destroyers of these gasiform poisons are, nitric acid vapor, muriatic acid gas and chlorine. The two last are the most efficacious, but require to be used in situations from which the patients can be removed at the time of the application. Nitric acid vapor may, however, be diffused in the apartments of the sick without much inconvenience. Bedslothes, particularly blankets, can retain the contagious fomes, in an active state, for almost any length of time. Hence commerce, in a country of considerable, they ought to be finnigated with peculiar care. The vapor of burning sulphur or sulphurous acid is used in the East against the plague. It is much inferior in power to. the other antilonme reagents. There does not appear to be any distinction commonly made between contagious and infectious diseases. The infection communicated by diseased persons is usually so communicated by the product of the disease itself; for instance, by the matter of the small-pox; and therefore many of these diseases are infections only when they have already producted such matter, but not in their earlier periods. In many of them, contact with the diseased person is necessary for infection, as is the case with the itch, syphiles, canne madness; in other contagions diseases, even the air may convey the miccion, as in the scarlet fever, the measles, the contagious typhus, &c. In this consists the whole difference between the fixed and volatile contagions. infection requires always a certain susceptibility of the healthy individual; and many infectious maladies destroy, forever, this susceptibility of the same contagion in the individual, and, accordingly, attack a person only once, as the small-pox, measles, &c. Other contagious diseases do not produce this effect, and may, therefore, repeatedly attack the same person, as typhus, itch, syphilis, and others. Sometimes one contagious disease destroys the susceptibility for another, as the kine-pock for the small-pox. In general, those parts of the body which are covered with the most delicate skin, are most susceptible of contagion; and still more so are wounded parts, deprived of the epidermis. Against those contagious diseases which are infectious through the medium of the air, precautions may be taken by keeping at the greatest possible distance from the sick, by cleanliness and fearlessness; but most completely by the vigilance of the healthofficers, by furnigations according to the

prescriptions of Guy ton-Morveau, &c. We can more easily secure ourselves against such contagious diseases as are infectious only in case of contact, by means of cleanliness, caution in the use of vessels for eating and drinking, of tobacco-pipes, of wind-instruments, beds and clothes. No general preservative against contagious diseases is known, though many are offered for sale by quacks. The examination of the persons intended for nurses and tenders of infants is very necessary, as thousands of children may be infected by contact with them, and the cause of the disorder remain unknown. (See Epidemic.)

CONTARING a noble family of Venuce. Domenico Contarmi was doge of Venice from 1043 to 1071. He rebuilt Grado, and reduced the city of Zara, which had revolted.-Jacopo Contarim was doge from 1075 to 1080. Under his reign the Venetians forced the city of Ancona to acknowledge their sovereignty over the Adrane sea.— Indica Contaran was doge from 1367 to 1382. The Genoese, under Pictro Doria, had conquered Chiozza, in 1379, and threatened even Venice. Andrea Containin reconquered Chiozfa, and delivered the republic from its enemies-Prancesco Contamin was doge from 1623 to 1625. Under him, Venice, in alliance with Louis XIII of France, the duke of Savoy, and the Protestant canons of Switzerland, reconquered the Pays de Vaud, in 1624, which the Austrians had taken possession of.—Carlo Contarmi was doge from 1655 to 1656. Under his reign Lazaro Moceua, o. admiral of the republic, in June, 1655, gained a Frilliant victory over the Turks, in the Dardanelles - Domemeo Confirm was doze from 1659 to During his government, Veince resisted, for five years, the attacks of the Turks on the island of Candia: but, on Sept. 26, 1067, after a siege and descree of unexampled obstances, Prancisco Morosim surrendered the island. Peace was then concluded.—Prancesco Contarm, m 1460, raught philosophy in Padua, was amba-sador at the court of Par- II, conmanded the Venetan troops against the Florentines, who had attacked Siena, and wrote the history of this campaign - Ambroso Contarini, from 1477 to 1483, was ambassador of the republic at the court of the king of Persia, Usun Kassan. The interesting description of his residence at this court first appeared in Venice, 11-1, in Italian.—Gasparo Contana negotiated n permanent peace between the republic and Charles V. In 1527, he went as

ambassador to Rome; then to Ferrara, in order to obtain the liberty of pope Clement VII, whom Charles V kept imprisoned in fort St. Angelo; succeeded in his mission, and became ambassador at the court of the pope. After his return, he was made senator of Venice. Pope Paul III conferred on him the cardinal's hat in 1535, 1541, he was papal delegate at the German diet, at Rausbon, where he distinguished himself by his moderation. When the bishops rejected the 22 articles of the Protestants, he exhorted the former not to offend the people any longer by their avance, luxury and ambition, but to visit their dioceses, support the poor and the schools, and distribute the benefices according to ment. After his return, he was sent as legate to Bologna, where he died in 1542 -Giovanni Contarna, born at Venice, in 1549, died in 1605, was one of the most distinguished painters of his age, worked in the style of Titian, and was particularly skilful in painting collings, e.g., his Resurrection, in the church of St. Francesco di Paolo, in Venice.— Vincenzo Contarmi, born at Venice in 1577, died in 1617; a scholar, whose reputation was, in early life, so great, that the magistrates of Padua established a new charrof Latin and Greek eloquence, only to retain the leaned youth of 26 years of age in their city. He lectured there until 1614. Smone Contarmi, born at Venno in 1563, died in 1633, was Venefian armassador at the court of the dake of Savoy, Plaho H of Spain, Mohammed III, in Constantinople, pope  $oldsymbol{\mathcal{C}}$  and  $oldsymbol{\mathcal{V}}_{i}$  and the emperor Ferdinand II: and became, afterwards, advocate of San Marco. As such, he made another journey to Constantinople. When, m 1630, the plague raged at Venice, he could not be induced to leave the city, but remained to make the arrengements which the exil required.

CONTAT. Louise (madame de Parny, known on the French stage as mademorselle), was born at Paris in 1760, made her But as Atalide, in Bagazet, at the theatre Francais (1776), but afterwards devoted her bulliant talents entirely to comedy. She was the pupil of Minc. Preville, and her earlier manner was formed on that of her instructions. She was discriminating. but cold in her action; dignified, but suff m her movements, forcible, but monotonots wither delivery. It was only when she appeared in a new class of characters, that she ceased to be an mutator. She had already appeared with great applicasein the parts which the French call the grandes coquettes, when Beaumarchars

produced for her Suzanne, the spirituelle and fascinating soubrette, in which, by the author's confession, she far surpassed his own conceptions of that character. Her versatility of talent was displayed in the Coquette Corrigée, in Julie in the Dissipa-teur, in Mme. de Volmar (Mariage Secret), and in Mme. Evrard (Vieux Célibataire). Beauty, grace, vivacity, archness and ease were united with dignity, tenderness, delicacy and judgment. She restored to the stage the masterpieces of Mohère, which had long been neglected by the public. After a theatrical career of 32 years, 24 of which were a continual series of tramphs, she retired from the stage in 1808, and became the centre of a brilliant circle of friends. Minc. de Parny was remarkable for her powers of conversation. was lively or severe, grave or gay, as the occasion required; and her remarks were always characterized by sound and ingenious views, elegant taste, and varied in-A few weeks before her formation. death, she threw into the fire a large collection of anecdotes and other writings. in prose and verse, from her pen, because they contained some strokes of personal She died, in 1813, after five months of severe suffering from a cancer in the breast, during which she maintested the greatest firmness, and even maintained her usual cheerfulness and gayety of spirit. M. Arnault, from whom this account is borrowed, owed his liberty and life, in 1792, to her interference, at the risk of her

Coxy, Nicolas Jacque-Ja painter and chemist, but particularly distinguished for the ingenuity of his mechanical contiivances, was born at St. Ceneri, near Seez (department of Orne), in 1755, and died in 1805. His mechanical genus was displayed, at the age of 12 years, by the construction of a violin (which was used at several concerts), with no other instrument than a kmfc. At the age of 18, without having received any instructions, he executed several paintings for the hospital of Seez. This success did not prevent him from the cultivation of the physical and mathematical sciences. He went to Paris, and invented a hydraulic machine, which was mentioned with approbation by the academy of sciences. In 1793, he was appointed one of the comunities for making experiments in regard to the decomposition of water by iron, instead of sulphuric acid; and his activity and skill on this commission occasioned his appointment of director of the acrostatic school at Meudon. Conté sug-

gested the idea of establishing a place of denosit for useful machines, tools, &c., in consequence of which the conservatory was instituted. He afterwards introduced the manufacture of an excellent kind of crayons into France, and established a great manufactory, which still supplies all France with them. He was appointed, in 1798, to accompany the French expedition to Egypt, and his services were of the greatest value. He constructed a furnace on the Pharos, near Alexandria, in the space of two days, for red-hot, balls, with which the English were repelled, and thus time was given for fortifying that place. The machines and instruments of the army having fallen into the hands of the Arabs, Conte was obliged to furnish every thing, even the tools: he constructed wind-mills, machines for the mint at Cairo, for an Oriental printing establishment, for the fabrication of gunpowder, &c., and cannon foundence; manufactured steel, paper, swords for the soldiers, utensils for the hospitals, instruments for the engineers, telescopes for the astronomers, microscopes for the naturalists, drums, trumpets, in short, every thing necessary for such a military and scientific expedition m such a country as Egypt. return to France, he was appointed to superintend the execution of the great work on Egypt, and invented a graving machine, which, by performing certain parts of the labor, spared the artist much time and trouble. The death of his wife, to whom he was tenderly attached, threw fam into a largering disease, and he survived her but a short time. Conté was a member of the legion of honor. samplicity, integrity, courage, disinteresteduc-s and warmth of affection rendered bun no less annable and estimable in private life, than his science and ingenity made him valuable to the nation.

CONTEMPT. Legislative bodies and judietal tribunals are generally invested with power to protect themselves against interruption; and such a power is essential to enable them to conduct their business. They are usually empowered to commit persons to prison, or punish them otherwise, for disturbances and contempts. The constitution of the P. States expressly gives to the senate and house of representatives authority to punish their own members for contempts: and in the case of Anderson, in the 6th volume of Wheaton's reports, it is decided that the house of representatives has power to imprison other persons than its own members for breach of its privileges and contempt of

42 \*

the house. Such a right, though not expressly given in the constitution, was considered as incidental to the establishment of a legislative body. So it has been considered and repeatedly decided in England, particularly in 1771, when Crosby, lord-mayor of London and a member of the house of commons, was committed to the Tower for the breach of the privileges of the house, and sir Francis Burdett again in 1811. A tegislative body may punish one of its own members for disorderly behavior, as well as a hystandert Judicial tribunals have the same power The French penal code, article 222, & c., provides, that, when any executive or judicial officer shall, during or on account of his official duties, be insulted, the person guilty of the outrage shall be punished by an imprisonment of not less than two months not more than two years: unless the offence is committed in open court, in which case the impresonment is not less than two nor more than twe years Black-tone says, in the 4th volume of his Commentaries, that process for contempt is "an inseparable attendant on every superior tubunal, and, accordingly, we find it actually exercised as far backs, s the annals of our law extend." This power has a much broader construction in Lingland than in the U. States, being confined. in the latter country, mostly, at best, to eases of actual disturbance and thegrant disrespect to the cours, or a pattempt to influence a decision by popular appeals, or direct and high-handed or on rageous resistance to, or obstruction of, its proceedmgs or processes; whereas, in England, it extends to acts or onassions which do not directly disturb the proceedings; such, for instance, as not payrez a bill of costs awarded by the court and obeying the summons of a court of equity, and not answering a bill, refusing to be sworn as a witness, which has also been held to be a contempt in the U. States, Serving a process on an attorney while attending court, has been held to be a contempt of the court in England, likewise shocking, or giving applause, in court, on a return of a verdict by a jury. It was held, in New York, to be a contempt of the court to bring a suit in the name of another, without his consent. It is a contempt to cuideavor, by writings or publications, to prejudice the public mind, or that of a jury, or the court, in a cause pending in court. This is not only an attack upon the public administration of justice, but also upon the right of the individual parties in the suit, since yould be in vain to provide, by law,

that no party shall be adjudged or con-demned without a hearing, if practices are permitted which tend to deprive him of a fair hearing. The party may be charged with contempt, either on the view of the court, that is, without taking the testunony of witnesses, for misdemeanors committed in presence of the court, or on the testimony of witnesses; and he is always heard in his own defence, provided he observes decorum in making his defence. The process is necessarily summery, since the cases are generally such as require immediate interposition, and courts do not usually resort to it, except in pulpable and flagrant cases. The pumshment, assigned by the statutes of the U. States, and those of the separate states, for this offence, is generally fine or impn-anment.

CONTENT and NONCONTENT are the words by which assent and dissent are expressed in the house of lords. Ave and No are used in the house of commons.

Coxressy, the elder and the younger, two German authors. The former, Christian James Sahee Contessa, was born at Hischberg, in Silesia, in 1767, and died in 1825; the latter, Charles William Salace Contessa, was born, Aug. 9, 1777, at 11 schberg, studied at Halle, and died at Berlin, June 2, 1825. He wrote tales and comedies. Von Houwald, likewise a German poet, published his works in 1826. Hoffmann has described Contessa's character in a masterly manner, under the name of Sylvester, in his Scrapionsbruder. The clder of the two brothers is unimportant as an author.

Coxri. Antopeo Schmella, abbate: a Venetran patrician, boga at Padua, in 1677, whose mathematical researches attracted the attention of Newton. He had given up the clerical profession, because he dishked to hear contessions. He visited Pe is, and, in 1715, London, where he was elected a member of the royal society. on the proposition of Newton. Here he became involved in the controversy between Newton and Leibnitz, and, by attempting to avoid displeasing either of them, dissitistied both. By chance, Conticame into possession of a manuscript, which contained Newton's system of chronology. From his hands it passed into those of Freret, who published it, with severy notes. Newton was much displeased. with Conti's share in the transaction. Feeble health obliged Conticto return, in 1726, to the milder sky of his own country. He lived mostly in Venice, entirely devoted to his literary occupations, which

included poetry. Of the six volumes of his works, which he intended to publish, only the two first appeared (Venice, 1734, 4to.). The first contains a long poem (Il Globo di Venere), intended to illustrate the Platonic ideas of the beautiful. After Contr's death (Padua, 1749), four of his tragedies were published at Florence, in 1751 (Giunio Bruto, Cesare, Marco Bruto, and Druso), which did not establish his poetical reputation beyond all question. In all his works, abstract thinking prevails over poetic imagination. His language is powerful, but is accused of being timetured with foreign ideas.—There are several other Contis famous in the Jearned world. Conti. (See Bourbon.)

CONTINENTAL SYSTEM was a plan devised by Napoleon to exclude England from all intercourse with the continent of Europe. All importation of English manufactures and produce, as well as all other intercourse with Great Britain, was prohibited, for the purpose of compelling England to make peace upon the terms prescribed by the French emperor, and to acknowledge the navigation law established at the prace of Utrecht. For a long period, a violent conflict had been carried on between the maritime powers, concerning the rights of neutral flags, which involved the following points:—1. Does the neutral flag protect enemies property, or not? 2. Is neutral property subject to confiscation under an eitenry's flag, or not? 3. How far does the right of belligerent powers extend to search neutral vessels sailing with or without convoy - 4. What is contraband of war at sea, and what are the rights of the captors in respect to it? 5. How far does the right extend to declare places in a state of blockade? and, finally, 6 Have neutrals the right to carry on a trade, in time of war, from which they were prolubited, in time of peace, with one belligerent, without disturbance from the other? or may neutrals carry on trade between a belligerent power and its colomes, during a war, either directly or encurtously, from which they were excluded in time of peace? On all these questions, the interest and policy of Great Britain were at variance with those of neutral nations, and induced her to arge belligerent pretensions, to which they were not willing to submit. This opposition to the previously acknowledged rights, of neurfals was not, however, confined to Great Britan; France, likewise, adopted it, and other maritime powers did the same, whenever they were strong enough to maintain their pretensions. The prin-

ciple that the flag protects the property was denied by the most powerful maritime nation, and still less was neutral . property respected under a belligerent flag. The right of searching, not only neutral vessels sailing singly, but even fleets under public convoys, was introduced in the case of a Swedish merchant fleet, and followed up in respect to others, and the searching vessels were not bound, by the rule adopted in the Brutsh admiralty, to take the word of the officers commanding whe convoy, that there were no contraband goods on board. A very wide latitude was also given to the term contraband.. Not only arms and munitions of war were included as such, but also materials which night be used in their manufacture, or such as were necessary in naval and military equipments, especially where they were desimed to a naval or mileary station of the belligerent enemy. principle adopted was, that whatever might afford the enemy any direct assistance or facilities in his naval or imilitary enterprises, was contraband of war. The principle of the right of confiscating articles of contraband, and, in some circumstance, the ship also, was carried to the extreme extent of the national law. On the right and extent of blockades, new doctrines, likewise, became prevalent. The old doctrine, that a naval blockade, in order to be valid, in respect to nentrals, must be maintained by an adequate force, so as to render ingress and egress minimently dangerous to neutral vessels, was never demed by the British admiralty; but then the novel practice was introduced, of declaring a whole coast in a state of blockade, and, by a pretty liberal construction as to the force requisite to maintain a valid blockade, and the danger of capture to which a neutral must be exposed, by an attempt to enter the places declared to be thus blockaded, the belligerent possessing the strongest naval force was embled to interrupt the trade of a neutral with the enemy. These doctrines of blockade were finally carried to such a length, that England declared the whole coast of France and Holland to be•m a state of blockade, while Napoleon, in retaliation, declared the whole of Great Britain to be in a state of blockade, though he had not a vessel to enforce the block-This subject of contraband of war was violently contested, as long ago as f 1780; and it was maintained, by the European powers who joined the armed neutrality of that time, that the flag should cover the property, and that the neutral had the right, during war, to carry ou ....

trade between either belligerent and its colonies, by permission of such belligerent, without any interference on the part of the other belligerent, although such trade was not allowed in time of peace. The principles of blockade and contraband gave Great Britain a great preponderance, on account of its maritime superiority; and the question naturally occurs, whether this preponderance is so dangerous as to call for the united efforts of nations to modify the principles of national law on these subjects, or, at least, to resist the construction put upon them by Great Britam. On examination, it will appear that the pretensions of Great Britain, whether well or ill founded, do not immediately threaten the independence of other nations, but only injure their commerce in time of war. It increased the price of some articles of luxury, in Europe, during the late wars from 1802 to 1812, but could not endanger the political independence of nations: could not, like the preponderance of a continental power, extinguish states, The continental and enslave Europe. nations suffered these evils only in time of war: for, in time of peace, England never has used oppressive measures against the commerce of other countries. and even in time of war, this reproach was most strongly made against her by those who indged of a maritime war solely by the rules established by the laws of nations to regulate wars on shore the rules adapted to the one cannot properly be extended to the other. Thus it is a general rule, acknowledged, at least, if not always acted upon, that the private property of the enemy shall be spared. If these rules were extended to maritime war, as France maintained they should be, the war would, in most instances, be entirely illusory. How, for example, could Fingland, in a maritime was against France, after having taken her few cotsnies, and destroyed her fleets, do her any further injury, if private property were, in all instances, to be respected? If, in such a case, the seizure of private, as well as national property, be not permitted, the war would be at an end. For the same reasons, the neutral flag, during a maritime war, cannot be unconditionally respected, as in time of peace. Were this the case, the flag of the weaker beligerent power would disappear from the seas, whilet neutrals would carry on its trade undisturbedly, un er their flags; and how could deceptions ever be detected? The neutrals, themselves, allow that they have no right to render either belligerent direct

assistance in the war; and yet, if their flag were to protect all property, it would be were to protect all property impossible to prevent neutrals from rendering such assistance, and, in fact, taking a disguised part in the war. The history of the continental system begins with the famous decree of Berlin of Nov. 21, 1806. by which the British islands were declared to be in a state of blockade; all commerce. intercourse and correspondence were prohibited; every Englishman found in France, or a country occupied by French troops, was declared a prisoner of war; all property belonging to Englishmen, fair prize, and all trade in English goods entirely prohibited. No vessel coming direct ly from England or English colonies, or which had been there since the publication of the edict, was to be admitted into any harbor, and all vessels attempting to ayond thus edict by false declarations were to be confiscated, with all their goods, as English. The reasons assigned for this decree were, that England did not ac-Knowledge the international law, accepted by enalized nations, but treated every individual belonging to the country of the enemy as if found in arms; made even the crews of merchantmen prisoners of war: extended the right of conquest over merchantmen and private property, and the right of blockade over places and harbors not fortified; over the mouths of rivers: may, over whole coasts and countries But many of these measures had always been taken, in maritime wars, even by France herself, as long as she had the means. One great reason for this and all the subsequent decrees of Napoleon was, that he consciered England his inveterate enemy, and the enemy of the political doctrines which took their rise from the revolution. He often used to say, "Je no fars pas ce que je veux, mais ce que je peux Ces Anglais me forcent a rivre an jour le jour." England unmediately directed reprisals against the Berlin decree, first by an order in council of Jan. 7, 1807, by which all neutral vessels were prohibited to sail from one port to another belonging to France, or one of her allies, or to a nanon so much under her control that English vessels could not freely have intercourse with it. Every neutral vessel which should violate this order was to be confiscated, with her cargo. A second decree of Nov. 11, 1807, was much more oppressive to commerce. By this, all harbors and places of France and her allies. in Europe and the colomes, as likewise every country with which England was at war, and from which the English flag

was excluded, were subjected to the same · liberal institutions by the exercise of the restrictions as if they were closely block-, droit d'intervention armée (see Congress, toaded; all commerce in the manufactures and productions of such countries was prohibited, and vessels engaged in such commerce were to be confiscated, as also all those vessels whose certificates showed that they were built in the enemy's country. Another order in council declared the sale of vessels, by the enemy, to neutrals, unlawful, and the intended transfer of property void. Hardly were these orders promulgated, when France male counter reprisals. By a decree of Milan of Dec. 17, 1807, aggravated by a decree of the Tuderies, Jan. 11, 1808, every vessel, of whatsoever flag, which had been searched by an English vessel, and consented to be sent to England, or had paid any duty whatever to England, was to be declared denationalized, and to have become British property; and in every case, such denationalized vessel, as also those which had broken the blockade deciated against the Jonian islands, or had sailed from an Euglish harbor or English colo-, ny, or those of a country occupied by the English, or which were destined to any such ports, were declared good prize. order the more effectually to anniulate the English commerce, the tariff of Trianon, respecting colonial goods, was proclaimed Aug. 3, 1-10. This was extended by mother decree of Sept. 12 of the same year, and both were followed by the decree of Fontamebleau, Oct. 18 of the same year, directing the burning of all These decrees were to English goods. be executed, with more or fewer modifications, in all countries connected with France. The consequence was, that the price of colonial goods to see normously; a regular smuggling trade was carried on at different points; for instance, at Heligoland, which was sometimes so crowded with persons concerned in this business, that a ducat was paid for a barrel to sleep in; thousands of substitutes for colonial goods, particularly for coffee and sugar, were invented (which presented the remarkable psychological fact, that people would drink the decoction of any stuff, which resembled coffee in color, if it had not the slightest resemblance in taste; so powerful is imagination, and a variety of manutictures grew up on the continent, which were the germs of very extensive and flourishing branches of industry .- As the holy alhance (a league as obnoxious as its name is arrogant) is composed of European continental powers, and as a chief object of this condition is the destruction of

wards the end), a policy very different from that of the English, when Canning was at the head of foreign affairs, this continental policy has sometimes been called the continental system.

CONTINGENT; the name often given to the quota of troops which is to be furnished by each member of a number of states composing a confederation. By the terms of the confederation of the Rhine, each of the states of which it consisted was to furnish 1 man for every 150 inhabitants. The proportion has been increased in the German confederation, and amounts, at the lowest rate (the simplum), to 1 man for every 100 souls. The whole confedera-. tion amounting to 30,095,054, the army of the confederates, at the lowest rano, called simplum, contains over 300,000 troops, divided into 10 corps d'armée, of which Prussia and Austria furnish each 3, Bayana 1, and the remaining states 3 The quotas of men and money were asigned for a term of 5 years, according to the population of the different states at the time when the umon was formed, and remain unaltered to the present time. Such an army has never yet been called together, and, should it ever be, the German confederation, in this base, would show how impotent and fingile is ats whole constitution.

Conformati: ancient medals which have occupied the attention of antiquarians for a long time, and, on account of their raimy, are highly esteemed in cabinets. They are formed of a thin plate of metal (not of two different sorts, as is often supposed), with a flat impression. They differ from other ancient coins, by having a furrow upon both their sides, where the others have a wreath of pearls. These hollowed lines (in Italian, contorno) may have occasioned their name. Another characteristic of genuine conformali is a cipher com-posed of the letters EP or PE, of which no satisfactory explanation has, as yet, been discovered, together with numerous impressed characters, and a great number of palm branches, the cavities of which are often filled with silver. They are also added by a second hand, and thereby are essentially distinguished from the monograms, so called in the language of the munt. They resemble the signa incusa (contremarques) on the Roman medals. All the contorniati are of bronze, and equal in size to the large bronze coms called medaglioncini by the Itahan collectors. Their form is various, their work -- · manship rude, and their inscriptions, are frequently different from the usual curial style upon the ancient coins. From these circumstances, we may conclude that they did not belong to the age of the Roman emperors whose images they bear, but to a later one. Eckel, in his masterly treatise on the contorniati, follows the opinion of Morelli and Mahudel. who consider them to have been made from the reign of Constantine the Great to that of Valentinian. It has been ascertained that they were not struck by publicauthority; and the ancients have transmitted no account of their destination, which must, therefore, be left to conjec-The frequent representations of race-grounds, palms, men shouting to the characteers, and even the images of the emperors Nero and Trajan, &c., upon them, make it probable that they were intended for the frequenters of the games at the circus in Rome and Constantinople, for whose amusement both these emperorprovided so abundantly. They were, probably, distributed as tickets of admission for the spectators, by the directors of the The images of celebrated men, which are found upon them, are of little value as portraits, because they do not appear to have been executed with care.

CONTOUR. (See Outline.)

Contragand, in commerce; all goods and wares exported from or imported into any country, against the laws of said country. There are, also, a number of articles termed contraband of war, which neutrals may be prevented, by one belligerent, from carrying to another. What is to be considered contraband of war depends upon existing treaties. These, however, have not settled, with much precision, the articles embraced under this term Indeed, before the Consolato del Mare of the Italian mercantile states, the subjects of many powers were forbidden to fernish their chemies with arms. The rule was afterwards & tablished, that a belligerent power might prevent neutrals from supplying its enemy with inumtions of war; hence the name contraband (contra bannum) was introduced. Subsequently, the term contraband was extended so as to embrace articles out of which munitions of war were made. All other articles, however, even such as might be useful to the enemy, such as grain, wane, provisions, money, &c., were allowed to pass free, a few only being excepted, by particular treaties (as, for instance, in the compact be-tween France and Spain, in 1604, in the treaty between England and Holland, in

1654, & c.), tintil very lately, when the number of articles styled contraband of war has been prodigiously increased. Many belligerent powers, in the war which broke out near the end of the last century, gave a partial and arbitrary construction to the term, for instance, England and Russia, in 1794, who wished to prevent neutral powers from supplying France with corn; and the might of England enabled her to enforce her own construction, which made such articles, for example, as salted meat contriband, under the pretext that it could only be intended for the garrisons and ships crews. "The catalogue of contrabands," says sir William Scott (now lord Stowell), "has varied very much; sometimes in such a manner as to make it difficult to assign the reason of the variations, owing to particular circumstances, the history of which has not accompanied the history of the decisions. The king is bound to watch over the safety of the state; he may, therefore, make new declarations of contraband, when articles come into use, as implements of war, which were before This is not the exercise of discretion over contraband. The law of nations prohibits contraband, and it is the usus bellier, which, shifting from time to time, make the law shaft with them. The greatest difficulty seems to have occurred in the zustance of provisions, which have not been held, universally, contraband, though Vattel admits that they become so on certain occasions, when there is an expectation of reducing the enemy by famme. In modern times, one of the principal craeria, adopted by the courts, for the decision of the question, whether any particular cargo of provisions be confiscable as contraband, is, to examine whether those provisions be in a rude or a manufactured state. Articles are treated with greater indulgence in their native condition than when they are wrought up for the convenience of the enemy's numediate consumption." Of late, the practice of treating provisions as contraband of war, when asserted at all, has been, undoubtedly, less strict: a proof that the belligerent was not entirely confident of his right to confiscate. The belligerent has exercised the right of preemption only -a right of purchase with a reasonable compensation to the individual whose property has been diverted, by the act of the belligerent, from its original destination. Every state determines for itself what articles shall be decined contraband in the way of trade; for the most part, on the principle that nothing shall be imported which the country itself produces in abundance, and nothing exported but that which exceeds its own consumption.

(Ser Smuggling.)

CONTRACT; an agreement or covenant between two or more persons, in which each party binds himself to do or forbear some act, and each acquires a right to what the other promises. Natural law requires that if one person accepts from another a service, he should render to him something in return, whether this be expressly agreed upon, or only implied from the nature of the undertaking. Mutual promises of future good offices also are binding, at least by the natural law, if one of the contracting parties has thereby been induced to act; for, if he does not receive the thing stipulated for, he suffers wrong. We may go further, and say, that confidence in promises is so essential to the existence of social intercourse among men, that even the ,bare promise of one of the parties, when given and received in carnest, that is, with the idea of its being binding, is not enurely destitute of the force of obligauon. In every state, it will be nece∽ary to retain these principles, since the idea of justice implanted in the human rand should not be violated. It is the part of legislation to provide for special cases, to establish certain forms, and to fix, according to rules founded upon experience, the effects of each promise, also to withdraw trom certain contracts their natural obligation, or to determine this in others, in which it is uncertain according to natural. law. Such has been the course of the Roman law, which, by its consistency and justice in regard to contracts, his obtained, on the continent of Europe, almost umversal authority. In that law, at an early period, a contract (contractus), in the proper sense of the word, was an agreement binding on both parties. It was remired to be in a determinate form; and there was an equally determinate mode of mineaching it. A contract was distinguished from a simple pactor promise (pactum); and it was a fundamental doctrine, that a simple pact (pactum) would not entitle one to maintain a legal action, but merely to raise an objection in defence. The essents I character of contracts in the stricter sense, is founded on the circumstance that such a legal relation is necessary for the most simple social intercourse, and imposes, according to its nature, certain duties. The most simple of these relations arise from a positive act, we the transfer of a thing to be returned

(contractus realis), in which the object and extent of the obligation are determined by the real benefit conferred. Such a contract arises from delivering a thing, with or without pay; as, for instance, a deposit, a mutuum, or a pawn. A determinate form of agreement, however, is not always necessary. Civil intercourse allows another kind of contracts, in which the simple consent of the parties gives obligation to agreements, so that they may constitute the ground of an action (contractus consensuales). Such, according to the Roman law, is sale, hire (as well the lending of a thing as services done for money), partnership, an accepted commission, and the contract for a fee farm rent (emphyteusis). But the same obligatory power, and this in the strictest sense, was allowed, also, to a verbal promise given in a certain solemn form, called a stipulation (contractus verbalis), as well as to a written obligation (contractus literalis, chirographarius). The form of a stipulation became continually more lax, approaching nearer to a simple promise, and, at last, amounted to nothing more than this, that he who wanted to bind another (stipulator) a-ked him, in a form of his own choosing, "Do you promise to give me such a Jung?" and the other, who was to be bound, answered "I promise It as obvious that, in this way, every simple promise (pactum) could be made actionable, and that the alteration, in modern times, in the law of some parts of Europe, which admits of an action upon every compact, amounts, in fact, only to this, that the form of a supulation has become even more lax, so that there is no longer any necessity for the claimant (promissarius) to commence with his question, but the 'compact can as well begin with the declaration of the party under obligation (promissor). These forms of contracts are, in their essential parts, settled; and the legal relation, tagether with the action arising from it, has a fixed name (contractus nominali). But other relations, also, as exchanges of things and services, service for service, gift for gift, gift for service, service for gift (No ut des, facio ut facias, do ut facias, facio ut des), gave rise to rights and obligations, but in such diversified ways, that an appropriate form of action could be framed only from the statement of each particular case (actio in factum præscriptis verbis); and there were, accordingly, no technical terms adapted to such variously combined relations. Hence arose the contractus innomination which were considered as real contracts to far only that the actual performance of one party entitled him to an action; and, reven in this case, there was not an absolute obligation on the other party to the performance of his part of the contract; but, in most cases, simply the duty of restoring what had been received. But the modern law creates here (though not without dispute) a perfect duty to perform the very thing promised. Finally, the Roman law attributed the effect of actionable obligations even to some partial promises and agreements (pacta); not only to those which were added as appendices to other real contracts (pacta adjecta), but also to some of a different kind. These were either declared obligatory by a formal law, or were admitted as grounds of action by the pretor (pacta legitima and pratoria). • Most of the technical designations of these are indeed new, yet the ancients had several, as, for instance, re, consensu, verbis, literis, contrahitur obligatio, &c. In this way donations, promises of dowry, promises of interest, acknowledgments of debt, &c., were made actionable. It is always 'miphed' in the idea of a contract, that the real cause of its obligation is founded on some particular ratiofial object of the party who promises (causa cirilist, and that mere promises and agreements are not brighing. Even supulations, which have no ground, or an untawful one (nullam and injustam causam), are valid, indeed, with regard to their torm, but are open to the objection of intrusic groundlessness, except when they are do-With these views were also nations. connected certain divisions of these legal which ought to be restored; so by a relations, and of the actions arising from them, according to which, in some cases, the object of the obligation was strictly fendorced (actiones strict juris); but, in others, the liability could be settled only by the decree depending upon all the carcumstances of the special action before the court (actiones bong fider). divisions refer to the relation of the parties, as, in some of them, the obligation is only on one side, as to return the thing recerved in lending (contractus unilaterales); and, in others, there are reciprocal obligations, as in a sale, a partner-hip (contractus bilaterales); or they concern the subject of the contracts, whether relating to property or to some other object. To the conditions necessary for the formation of a contract belongs the consent of the contracting parties. Accordingly, when this is wanting, either because the parties were not capable of taking upon themselves the obligation (as minors, madmen,

**504** 

prodigals), or because the contract was founded on an error (an innocent error on the side of the party making the mistake, or one occasioned by the deceit of the other party), or when the engagement was extorted by force and fear, there can be no valid contract. To contracts may also be added conditions, which either delay or dissolve them, and also precise determinations of time, place and object (modus), which coincide, at times, with the condition. A confract must be possible and legal, else it is without force. No one can be obliged to undertake what is impossible, or decidedly immoral (causa turpis). According to the Roman law, it is a matter of dispute, whether an obligation to do something or to leave something undone gives a right to compel a specific performance, or whether it gives merely a claim to indemnification. The English and French laws have adopted the latter doctrine (toute obligation de faire ou de ne pas faire se resoud en dommages et intérêts). Obligations resembling express contracts arise if one person does something for another, without the knowledge and desire of the latter; so that the latter is bound to give a recompense for what has been thus beneficially done for him (obligatio quasi ex contractu). In this case, there is no consent existing, neither is it supposed, but the consent could not have been refused, or it was not necessary. Such relations, resembling express contracts, arise in eases of guardianship, between guardian and ward, by the receipt of money for a nonexisting debt by mistake, the amount of beneficial performance of some business for another, without axiy actual commission from him, where the circumstances case a presumption of obligation.—Thus far the present article refers to the general theory of contracts, founded either upon natural justice or the principles of the civil and Roman law. A short account will now be added of the nature and obligation of contracts by the common law; that is, by the law which regulates this subject in the jurisprudence of England and America. The original basis of the common law, as to contracts, was, without doubt, the civil or Roman law; but it has undergone some modifications in its incorporation into our jurisprudence. contract may be defined, in the common ·law, to be an agreement made if one form, between partick capable of contracting, for a legal object or purpose, and upon a sufficient consideration. It must be an agreement or mutual bargain, vol-

antary, and without force or fraud; and bacrefore it includes an assent given bona fide. . The notion of an assent includes a physical and moral power of assenting. . and the deliberate and free use of this power. And this leads us to the consideration of the next point, which is, that it must be between parties capable of contracting. Upon principles of universal law, an infant, having no discretion or moral power of perception, cannot make a contract; nor can a person who is insane or mad; nor an idiot, or person lalering under such mental debility or such natural defects as prevent a just exercise The common law recognises of reason. these principles, and therefore it treats as nullities all contracts entered into by such persons; it treats in like manner contracts made by aged and imbecde men, whose understanding has become so weak and inefficient that they are liable to unposition, and cannot act with a reasonable discretion. In respect to persons who enter into contracts in a state of intoxication, the old law, with a view to deter men from such practices, did not hold the contracts void, so that the party might set them aside at his own suit, upon the ground that no man should be allowed to stultify himself, or allege his own vice to excuse his non-performance of a contract. But this principle, if it is now acted upon at all, is received with great modifications; and, if there be any undue advantage taken of the party's situation, he will be reheved. The common law, indeed, seems originally to have disabled a party who was insuic from avoiding, after the recovery of his reason, any contract made during his meanity; partly upon the maxim that no man should be permitted to stultify himself, and partly upon the supposed danger, in admitting such defences, of overturning deliberate and solemn contracts. But his legal representatives, after his death, were always allowed to avoid them; and when he has a guardian appointed, the guardian may avoid his contracts in a proper suit; so that the doctrine, if it now exists (and it has been much questioned), is more a matter of form than of substance. The general inclination, in American courts, has been to allow the party himself to show that the contract was void by reason of insamty, &c. In respect to who shall be deemed infants or minors, the laws of every civilized country have provided a certain age, at which persons shall be deemed cupable of all sorts of contracts, and for all The time differs in purposes sui juris. VOL. 111,

different countries, and different times are. assigned for different acts. By the common law, all persons are infants until toenty-one years of age, and then are considered as of full age for all purposes whatsoever. By the same law, the ages of males and females are different for different purposes. A male at fourteen is at years of discretion, and may consent or disagree to marriage, may choose his guardian, and, if his dis-cretion is actually proved, he may make a testament of his personal estate, though not of his lands; at seventeen, he-may be A Smale may, at seven an executor. years, be betrothed in marriage; at nine, is entitled to dower; at tirelve, may consent or agree to marriage; at fourteen, may choose a guardian; at seventeen, may be an executrix; and at twenty-one, is of full age for all purposes. Both males and females are capable of making contracts for necessaries during their nunority; but, in general, other contracts do not bind them, unless manufe-tly for their benefit; and, though contracts made with them cannot be avoided by the other side, the infants themselves, when they arrive at age, may ratify them; for, as to them, they are generally voidable, and not void. A contract, too, must be for some legal object or purpose; that is, for something which the, law allows to be done or omitted; for it is a general principle, that all contracts which are prohibited by law, whether they involve moral turpitude, or are menly prohibited by po-mye law, are void and incapable of binding the parties. A coutract, too, must have a sufficient consideration to support it. Considerations are either valuable in themselves, or good. A good consideration is such as flows from blood or natural affection between near relations, such as parent and child. In respect to such considerations, it may be said, that they are, as between the parties, generally sufficient to support an executed contract; that is, a contract which has completed its operation by a transfer of the thing, such as a gift or grant, or assignment and delivery of a thing. But where the rights of third persons, such as creditops, intervene, such gifts, or grants, or assignments, are not always valid, as against them. For a man must be just before be is generous. But in respect to good considerations, if the contract is not executed, but is a mere chose in action, such as a promise to pay money, or to deliver goods, or to give a thing, such a contract has no legal obligation, and cannot be enforced in a suit, in a court of law. It is generally deemed a voluntary promise or

naked pact. A valuable consideration is one arising from, or on account of, money or goods received, or services done, or other contracts of reciprocal benefit, or marriage, or a loss or injury, or forbearance of right. In all such cases, if a promise is made on any of these or the like accounts, it is binding in law. If A promises to pay ten dollars to V for goods sold to A, or money borrowed, &c., it is a binding contract. So if A promises to pay B a debt due from C, if B will forbeat, for a certain time, to suc C, it is a binding contract. So, if A has done an injury to B's lands or goods, and promises to indemmfy lum, it is a good contract. In all these cases, there is a mutuality of interest er consideration—a quid pro quo. But a mere moral obligation creates no contract; as if A promises to give a pauper his clothes, or to supply him with necessaries But though, in general, a contract is not binding, unless made upon a valuable consideration, there are contain force in the common law, as there are in the civil law, by which a party may bind himself without such consideration. If, therefore, A enter into a written contract, under his seal, with B, to pay him a sum of money. or do my other act, there the common law considers the deed of such high solemmty, that it will hold it banding the deems it as importing a valuable consideration, or rather will not suffer the constant to be proved, and acce upon the sole in at lor the instrument as, of risch, or peramount obligation. There are certain contracts which the common law requires to be done in a particular most to give them validity, and therefore another to daste is, that the contract mest be in due form There are certain things, which can be conveyed or transleved only by some winton instrument or deed, such as meer poreal herediaments, as rights of ways, casements, & c.; and, generally speaking, hands can new be granted only by deed There are, also, many cases specially prosided for by statutes, in which contracts are not binding, unless reduced to writing, and signed by the party or his ageta. Among these are contracts for the debts of another, contracts respecting lands, and contracts respecting goods beyond a certain value. Indeed, many of the regulations, here referred to as pure of the common law, are, in the different states of the American umon, variously modified by the local pursprudence, and, principally, by statutes.

CONTRAVALLATION: a line formed in the same manner us the line of circumvallation to defend the besiegers against the enterprises of the garrison, so that the troops carrying on the siege he between the lines of circumvallation and contravallation. As the line of circumvallation must be out of the reach of cannon-shot from the place besieged, its cucumference is necessarily so great as to render both its erection and its defence difficult. It is, therefore, seldom resorted to, and a corps of observation is generally preferred.

CONTUNACY, (See Contempt.) The Lat. in term contumacia is used, on the continefit of Europe, to express the offence of non-appearance in court of a person summoned pudicially. In civil causes, a person, in such case, may be properly made habte to a decision against him, for his neglect in not appearing to defend his rights; but, by an extension of the principle to criminal cases, persons are often sentenced, in their absence, to punishment in contains orm, as it is called, particularly those who are charged with political offences, who can expect little justice under despotte governments. Such senteries are mainfestly unjust, since an inmocent person ought not to suffer panishment, even if he cours it, and neglects the means of defence. Sentences in confunctcian, in criminal offences, therefore, are generally set aside, if the accused personoppears and submits to trial. During the rate political persecutions in Prussia, Austree, Italy, Span and Procee, a great min-Cer el sentences in confunución have taken place, and even scatenees of death have been passed rughes way.

Coxry, or Coxry. See Bourbon. Convenience, a private assembly, or macang, for the exercise of religion. tioner was at first Leveli as an appendition of reproach, to the religious assembles of Washine, in the reigns of Edward III and Richard H, and is now applied to illegal neetings of noncentorinsts. There were, several statutes made, in former reigns, for the suppression of conventicles, lan, by I William and Mary, it is ordered that dissenters may assemble for the performance of religious worship, provided their doors be not locked, barred or hor Conventiele, in strict propriety, denotes an unlawful assembly, and cannot, therefore, be justly applied to the legal assembling of persons in places of worslap, certified or beensed according to the requisitions of law. In the U. Statesothe word has no application, and is little used.

Conserving (from the Latin); a meeting. The word, in a political sense, is generally used for a meeting of delegates convened for a special purpose. Thus it

was a convention which deposed James II.

National convention was the name of the assembly of the delegates of the French nation; so, in the U. States, there have been, of late years, various conventions to amend the constitutions of the soveral states respectively, as the Virginia convention, &c.

1. 4.

Convention Money (in German, Conventions geld): money coined according to the 20 guilder standard of 1753. The courts of Victuna and Munich made a convention, in that year, to com 283 guilders 5 kreuzers and 344 pence (Pfanige) of one fine mark of gold; and 20 guilders or 131 convention dollars, or Spicus-Thales, of Germany excepting Holsten, Labeck, Hamburg, Mecklemburg, Breinen, Oldenburg, Mecklemburg, Breinen, Oldenburg, Mecklemburg, Breinen, Oldenburg, So called, is not another actual standard, but only a nominal division of the above standard. 20 kienzers of convention money, according to this, are counted as 24, &c.

Conversation. With all enabled nations, agreeable conversation has been emsidered as one of the most important productions and productes of social intercourse. The standard of good conversa-· a must be different in different ages. ountries, individuals, and exsolier Quaker's idea of good conversation s probably very unlike what a gay man of the world would term such. The monotonous life which is led in Asia indisposes the natives to the quick interchan. of thought, and makes there patient listerers to long narrations, or the endless creations of a fertile imagination; while the diversines and rapid changes of late in Paos afford a vast stock of subjects, so ther cready convitisci may berefron twenty different topics in the course of five manages. When Leibniz re unaed from a learned dinner, and said he hald be in entertained with the conversation, ho meant something very deflerent from what an officer in the London horse-guaras would designate by this phrase. In the same way, the conversation must always bear the impress of the age. A conversmon at the fivolous courts of Louis XIV and XV, or in the dissolute encle of Charles 11, must have had a different character from that which prevails at present in the courts of Versulles and St. James. Notwith-tanding the nuncrous varieties of character which conversation assumes under different circumstances, there are certain general rules which ought to be followed, wherever it takes

place, according to the meaning given to it among the civilized nations of the West. Our rules would not, indeed, be applicable to some nations; e. g., the are said to converse often by alternate improvisation. Conversation is an art which must be learned like every other and, as is the case in other arts, there are individuals and whole nations who have peculiar talents for it. Yet, as it is pracused by every accomplished man, it is the duty of every such man to perfechonself in it as much as possible. It is however, as in the case of every art, much easier to say what should be avoided, that: what is to be done. A friend of ours, whose servants were Methodists, gave them leave to myne a party of their selves apart from each other. Not a word was spoken. At last, recourse was had to the Bible. Who of us has not witnessed the reverse of this : -- ome noisy company, where every one spoke, and no one could distinguas's even his own voice. These are the two extremes of unskilliness in conversation. The intermediate shades we need not describe. The object of conversation - to afford entertainment or agreeable paformation; and one of its first rales is to allow every body to contribute his man; at the same time, we should not be entertained passively, but exert ourselves for the gratheatton of the company I gottsm is the very bane of conversation the purpose of which is not to please ourselves, nor to obtain admination, but to please others. We must carefully avoid tediousness in narration, and any display of self-concert We cannot, however, assent to the rule of the venerable Franklin never to contradict in company, nor even correct facts, of wrongly stated, because differ new of opinion is the soul of conversition. To adapt yourself to the company, and your conversation to your talet - and information, is another rule as, also, to keep the conversation flowing to seize upon points which can turn it into new channels; and, above all, not to talk about the weather. The English and Americans talk more on this subject than any other nation. Pernans this may be partly owing to their variable climate. If you see that your hearers understand already all you are going to say proceed to something else. If you relate an anecdote, be quick: avoid episodes, and oblige others to support you don't laugh at your own wit -it takes away all the point.

Nothing is more disagrecable than a les Moyens de plaire dans la Conversation; speakers laugh outlasting his joke. Good and Chazet's L'Art de causer. Diderot and selection of topics for conversation, and prevent you from touching subjects unpleasant to your companions. Conversation, moreover, is not a parliamentary debate; and, if the demonstration of what you have said becomes tedious, let it go. When you are inclined to complain of a dull conversation, remember that two are necessary for a lively exchange of ideas, and consider whether you were not the party in fault. This complaint of tediousness is too often made by ladies, who forversation. The Encyclopédic Moderne gives the following definition of its charneter:-La conversation n'est point une course vers un but, une attaque régulière sur un point, c'est une promenade au hasard dans un champ spacieux, où l'on s'approche, on s'erite, on se froisse quelquefois sons se leurter jamais. Rousseau justly remarks, that "the tone of good conversation is neither dull nor frivologs. It is fluent and natural: sensible, without being pedantic; cheerful, without being boisterous; ele-· gant, without being affected: polite, without being insipid, and jocose, without being equivocal. It deals not in dissertations nor epigrams; conforms to the demands of good taste, without being bound by rule; unites wit and reason, saure and compliment, without departing from the rules of a pure morality, and allows all to speak on subject- which they understand. Each one expresses his opinion, and supports it in as few words as possible; and no one attacks that of another with warmth, or upholds his own with obsinacy. All impart information, and all are entertained. The middle of the last century, when the most polite and refined circles collected around ladies of polished minds and grace ful manners, such as L. L.s. pinasse, Du Deffand and Geoffrin (q. v.), (to the last of whom we are indebted for an excellent treatise on conversation), may be justly regarded as the flourishing period of refined society in France. Though the art of conversation can be learned very imperfectly from books, yet these sources of information are not to be despised. We would, therefore, refer our readers to Delille's poem entitled La Conversation; madame Mannoz's Conseils à une Femme, sur

and Chazet's E Art de causer. Diderot and sense and good feeling should guide in the madame de Stael have given us at once rules and examples for delightful conver-We will, therefore, willingly take sation. the French as our masters in this art, believing in the old maxim—que les Français seulement savent converser et que les autres nations ne savent que disserter et discuter. The Encyclopédie Moderne contains the following passage, which we insert as containing some truth in the midst of its exflavagance:-Les Allemands ne causent pas, ils argumentent: la conversation des Italiens est une panlomime milée d'exclamaheness of the French, founded on a human feeling, have made them distinguished above all other nations for sparks s'echappe de l'urne à thé. We must obling, fluent, animated and delightful conversation. The Encuclonistic Matter of the state of the stat tions. · Chez les Anglais, ce qu'on nomme cisely corresponding to causer. It might be as difficult to find a word in any other language corresponding to prosing. Goldom, in his comedy called the Coffee-House, has characterized the different nations of Europe by the nature of their conversations. It is surprising that the Western nations have never been sensible how important it is to instruct children in the art of agreeable narration. A large part of their time in schools is spent in acquiring facility in written composition; and yet, have we not ogeasion to relate a hundred times where we have occasion to write once? If we look around us, how few persons do we see who know how to relate, properly, any thing of length! Among the Asiaties, the art of relating is inhigh estimation, and properly taught. We ought to imitate them & this respect.

Convolx (from the Latin convexus, vaulted, arched); using in a circular form; the contrary to concare. Thus the inside of a watch-glass is concave, the outer surface convex. The mathematician defines a curved line convex on the side on which the point of intersection of two tangents falls, and concave on the opposite side. — Convexity and concavity are of particular importance in catoptrics and dioptrics, as applied to mirrors and lenses.

Conveyance, in law, is the transfer of the title to lands or hereditaments. There are different kinds of conveyance at common law; as by feoffment and livery (making'a deed of the land in fee, and putting the grantee into possession); by lease and release (granting a term of years, or other limited right of possession of the land, and then relinquishing the remainder

to the lessee, after he has taken posses-

sion); by grant, which was first used in. They have the examining and consuring regard to incorporeal hereditaments (such as the right of receiving a certain perpetual rent, or appointing a clergyman to a particular church), where no livery of serzin and actual possession could be given, but was subsequently applied to corporcal hereditaments; or, finally, by bargain and sale, which is, in fact, a species of grant. (See Bargain and Sale.) Such were the modes of conveyance by the common law; but the introduction of uses and trusts made a great revolution in the modes of conveyance in England. The feoffment to uses was first introduced, whereby the fee of the land was granted to one person, for the use or benefit of another. The statute of 27 Henry VIII was passed to prevent this species of conveyance, by enacting, that, where it was made, the fee should pass to the person for whose benefit the grant was made, so that the effect should be the same as if the conveyance had been made to him directly. To evade this statute, trusts were invented, whereby the land was conveyed to one, for the use of another, in trust for a third; and the courts, favoring this evasion of the statute, held that, in such case, the fee would pass to the second, to be held for the use and benefit of the third; thus effecting, by the intervention of another party to the conveyance, what the statute was intended to prevent. This contrivance has rendered the system of conveyaneing very intricate and complicated in England. It is more simple and direct in the U. States, following, substantialty, the transfer by bargain and sale, as has been already remarked under that head.

Convocation; an assembly of the elergy of England, by their representatives, to consult on ecclesiastical matters. It is held during the session of parhament, and consists of an upper and a lower house. In the upper sit the bishops, and in the lower the inferior clergy, who are represented by their proctors, consisting of all the deans and archdeacons, of one proctor for every chapter, and two for the clergy of every diocese; in all, 143 divines. The convocation is summoned by the king's writ, directed to the archbishop of each province, requiring him to summon all bishops, deans, archdeacons, &c. The power of the convocation is limited by a statute of Henry WIII. They are not to make any canons or ecclesiastical laws without the king's heense; nor, when permitted to make any, can they put them in execution but under several restrictions.

all heretical and schismatical books and persons, &c.; but there lies an appeal to the king in chancery, or to his delegates. The clergy in convocation, and their servants, have the same privileges as members of parliament. In 1665, the convocation gave up the privilege of taxing themselves to the house of commons, in consideration of being allowed to vote at the elections of numbers for that house.

Convoy (from the French convoyer, to accompany), in naval language, signifies a fleet of merchantmen, bound on a voyage to some particular port or general rendezvous, under the protection of a ship or ships of war. It also means the ship or ships appointed to conduct and defend them on their passage thither. In mili-, tary language, it is used for escort. (q. w)-Convoy, or brake, is a crooked lever, applied to the surface of the wheels of carriages, so as to retard their motion by its friction.

Conversion (Latin, convelsio; from conrello, to pull together); h diseased action of muscular fibres, known by violent and involuntary contractions of the muscular parts, with alternate relaxations. Convulsions are universal or partial, and have obtained different names, according to the parts affected, or the sympoms; as the risus sardonicus, when the muscles of the face are affected; St. Vitus's dance, when the muscles of the arm are thrown into involuntary motions, with lameness and rotations. The hysterical epilepsy, or other epilepsies, arising from different causes, are convulsive diseases of the universal kind. The muscles of the globe of the eye, throwing the eye into involuntary distortions, in defiance of the direction of the will, are ristances of partial convulsion. The muscles principally affected, in all species of convulsions, are those , immediately under the direction of the will; as those of the cyclids, eye, face, jaws, neck, superior and interior extremi-The muscles of respiration, acting both voluntarily and involuntarily, are not unfrequently convulsed; as the diaphragm, intercostals, &c. The more mimediate causes of convulsions are mental affection, or any irritating cause exciting a great action in the arterial system of the brain and nerves. After muscles have been once accustomed to act involuntarily, and with increased action, the same causes can readily produce the same effects on those organs. All parts that have muscutions in the mind most capable of producing convulsions, are timidity, horror, anger, great sensibility of the soul, &c.
Convulsionists. (See Jansenists.)
Conway, Thomas, major-general in the

army of the U. States, and knight of the order of St. Louis, was born in Ireland. . At the age of six years, he went with his parents to France, where he was educated to the profession of arms, and acquired considerable reputation as an officer and a man of sound judgment. Having come to America with strong recommendations, he was appointed by congress a brigadier-general in May, 1777, and soon rendered himself conspicuous for his hostility to general Washington, and used every endeavor to substitute general Gates in the station of commander-in-chief. In this he was supported by some members of congress. He was appointed by that body inspectorgeneral of the army, with the rank of major-general, but was soon obliged to resign his commission, in consequence of his unpopularity with the officers. The brigadiers, in particular, had taken great umbrage at his promotion over them, and remonstrated to congress against the proceeding, as implicating their honor and character. His calumnies against Washington at length by came so atrocious, that general Cadwallader challenged him to answer for them in a duel. The parties met, and Conway received a ball through the lower part of his head, but the wound was not mortal. Conceiving, however, that it was, he wrote a satisfactory letter of apology to Washington, for the injury he had endeavored to inflict upon his character.

Cook, James; an English waman, highly celebrated for his maritime discoveries. He was born at Marton, a village in the north riding of Yorkshire, in 1725, of sober and industrious parents, not above the rank of peasantry. After having learned reading, writing and a little arithmetic, at a country school, he was put apprentice to a shopkeeper at Smith, a small town on the sea-coast. Here he acquired such a taste for the occupation of a sailor, and so much consequent dis-, bke of his business, that his master gave up his indentures, and he soon after bound himself to two brothers, ship-ownere of Whitby, for three years, and continued in their employ for some time after. At the commencement of the French war in 1755, he entered the royal navy. In 1759, he was made master of the Mercury, which belonged to the squadron sent against Quehec, and performed the haz-

ardous service of taking soundings in the river St. Lawrence, opposite the French encampment. He also made a chart of the river St. Lawrence below Quebec, in a very satisfactory manner. After the capture of Quebec, he assisted at the taking of Newfoundland, and afterwards made a survey of the harbor of Placentia. At the end of 1762, he returned to England; but, the next year, he went again to Newfoundland as marine surveyor. After again visiting England, he went out in the same capacity with sir Hugh Palliser, appointed governor of Labrador and Newfoundland. In this situation, he made himself known to the royal society by the communication of an observation on a solar eclipse, in 1766, with the longitude of the place deduced from it. In 1768, he was appointed to the command of the Endcavor, a vessel destined to convey to the Pacific ocean persons employed by government to make observations on the transit of Venus. He sailed from Deptford, June 30, 1768, with the rank of lieutenant in the navy. He was accompanied by Mr. (afterwards sir Joseph) Banks, and the Swedish naturalist doctor Daniel Solander. The transit of Venus, June 3, 1769, was advantageously observed at Otahette: the neighboring islands were explored, and hentenant Cook then sailed for New Zealand, where he arrived in October. Six months were employed in examining the shores of the islands; after which he took his departure for New Holland, the eastern coast of which he attentively surveyed. On his return, Cook was raised to the rank of master and commander to the navy. An account of the voyage, drawn up by do for llaw kesworth, was speedily published, and a second expedition was planned to explore the antaretic regions, for the purpose of ascertaining the existence or non-existence of a circum-polar southern continent. On this occasion, two ships were employed the Resolution, of which captain Cook had the command, and the Adventure, under captain Furneaux. Doctor John Remhold Forster and his son went out as naturalists, Mr. Hodges as painter, and Messrs. Wales and Bayley as astronomers. voyage was commenced in July, 1772; and, after proceeding as far south as the latigide of 71°, where a barrier of ice opposed any further progress, discovering the island of New Georgie, if 54° south latitude, and visiting Otaheite and other places, captain Cook returned to England in 1775. So successful were the means employed by captain Cook for the prevention of disease among his crew, that only one man was lost by sickness during the expedition. The captain having communicated to the royal society a paper describing the regulations and remedies which he had adopted, he was chosen a fellow of that body, and his experiments were rewarded by the Copleian gold medal. Government rewarded him with the rank of post-captain in the navy, and the appointment of captain in Greenwich hospital. The narrative of this voyage was drawn up by captain Cook himself, and merely arranged for the press by doctor Douglas, afterwards bishop of Salisbury. In July, 1776, he sailed on an expedition to ascertain whether any communication existed between the Atlantic In this voyage, he again commanded the Resolution, which was accompanied by the Discovery, and explored a considerable extent of the western coast of North America. He also discovered the Sandwich islands, and to Owhyhee, one of this group, he returned from his American survey, to pass the winter of 1778. In February, captam Cook sailed for Kamtschatka, but was compelled by an accident to put back to Owhyhee. A boat having been stolen by one of the islanders, the captain went on shore-to seize the king of Owhyhee, and keep him as a hostage till the boat was restored. The people, however, were not disposed to submit to this insult: their resistance brought on hostilities, and, in attempting to reach his boat, captain Cook and some of his attendants became victims to the fury of the arritated islanders. The death of this great sear an took place Feb. 14, 1779. A medal in commemoration of him was struck by order of the royal society; his culogy was pronounced in the Florentine academy, and was made a prize subject. by one of the French scientific societies.

Cooke, George Frederic; a theatrical performer of great eminence. He was born in Westminster, April 17, 1756. His father was a subaltern officer in the army, who, dying when young, left his wife m straitened circumstances. The youth evinced an early taste for his future pro-, fersion; and, being apprenticed to a printor, he neglected the labors of the office, and engaged his companions to assist Jum in performing plays. His indentures were consequently cancelled, and he was dismissed. He was then tried in the navy; but his inclination for the stage overcame all restraint, and he at length joined an tinerant company of actors. Here he was

quite in his element; and, after having acquired a competent acquaintance with stage business, he became the hero of the scene at York, Newcastle, Chester, Manchester, Liverpool, and other places. He acquired so much fame, that, in 1794, he was engaged by the manager of the Dublin theatre; and, after performing that season with great success, he returned to England. In 1797, he went again to Dublin, and continued there three years. At length, he made his appearance at Coventgarden theatre, Oct. 31, 1800, in the character of Richard III. His reputation was, at once, established, as a histrionic performer of the first class; and, after repeating the part of Richard III several times, he acted Iago, Macbeth, Shylock, and Pacific oceans in the arctic regions, sir Giles Overreach, sir Pertinax Macsycophant, Kitely, &c., with at least equal-applause, if not with equal skill and discrimination. The talents of Cooke were obscured by indulgence in pernicious habits of intemperance, which ultimately destroyed his popularity. Owing to the irregularity of his conduct, Cooke at . length became the plague and terror of English managers, few, if any, of whom, probably, regretted his removal to the U. States, where he had formed a theatrical engagement. In America, he displayed the same powerful abilities, and the same victous weakness, which had distinguished him in his native country. Death, hastened by intemperance, put an end to his career, March 25, 1812.

Cookers. It is not great things, but trifles, which principally make up the sum of human happiness. Who would not think a dull razor, which draws tears from the eyes every morning, or a creaking tavern sign, which disturbs us every might, a much greater evil than the single sharp pang occasioned by the drawing of a tooth? An act, therefore, like eating. which is repeated several times every day by the millions who inhabit the globe, is a subject worthy of serious investigation. The scientific pride, which disdans to dwell on the ordinary affairs of common life, is rapidly vanishing; and, in an age when utility is the great object of the philosopher, cookery may hope to engage a share of his attention. It has been asked, Why does man cook? Why does he, unlike the lower annuals, transform the materials, which nature gives him for nourishment, at least with the exception of some savage tribes? Some philosophers have ascribed it to a desire innate m man to make changes in every thing that he meets. But however philosophers may solve this. on their tables. Mr. Frederic Accum has ments where particular instruction should (London, Ackermann, 1821, 8vo.); but cooks. much remains to be done to put cookery while so much care is bestowed on the on a scientific footing. best for them," is by no means applicable tention, comparatively speaking, is given to cookery. Every body who has travcooking among different nations, must, islument. In addition to the work of the have seen, that, with the exception of baron Rumohr, above-mentioned, two of those countries where man lives chiefly upon finits, or in an almost savage state, people generally spoil what nature affords them as nourishment; and he would be a great benefactor to his nation, who should which would make their dishes at once palatable and wholesome. How much money would be saved, how many diseases prevented, how much comfort gained, if cookery were placed on a more rational basis, and were accommodated judiciously to the respective products of different countries! Rumford has attained described celebrity for his efforts to improve the food of the poor; and he would be no small benefactor of his species, who should be equally successful in improving the diet of the people at large. Most modern books on cookery are devoted to the preparation of refined disnes; and a very unfounded prejudice prevails, as if the culinary art were too trivial a matter to engage a reflecting mind! We are acquainted, however, with one book, the editor of which, a gentleman of literary reputation in Germany, has applied himself to the investigation of the culmary art, with a view of throwing light upon many points in the practice of cookery, which are, in general, but insufficiently understood, and of teaching the preparation, Cicero. of wholesome and palatable dishes, within the reach  $\epsilon$ ? the people at large. This excellent work, of which we should be glad to see a translation, is called Grist der Kochkunst, von Konig, herausgegeben ron C. F. von Rumohr, Stuttgard, 1422 (The Spirit of Cookery, by Konig, edited by the Baron you Rumoln). As architecture is divided into two sorts, the useful and the ornamental, so cookery might be divided into the useful and the fuvurious; and again, as the pharmacoparia of some countries is divided into a general one, and one for the poor, so useful cookery might also be divided into common and pauper cookery. Prizes might be offered for the mvention of cheap and wholesome dishes,

question, the fact is clear that we cook, and and more care might be taken to provide all agree in dearing something palatable good cooks, by setting on foot establishgiven us a treatise on Culinary Chemistry be given to girls desirous of becoming It is a little surprising, that, The maxim, improvement of the fruits of the earth, that "people will easily find out what is and the animals used for food, so little atto improving the culinary elled, and has observed the manner of which render them fit for affording nourthe best books on this subject are the Cook's Oracle and Housekeeper's Manual. by William. Kitchener, M. D., adapted to the American Public, by a Medical Gentleman, New York, 1830; and the French teach them to adopt a system of cookery. Cook, by Louis Eustache Ude, reprinted at Philadelphia, in 1828. The latter work, however, is adapted more particularly for those who say, with Voltaire, Qu'un cuisinier est un mortel divin! The history of the art of cooking is well given in the above-mentioned work of the baron von Rumohr. The melody of Homer's verse can hardly reconcile us to the cookery of his countrymen, described in his flowing hexameters. All the beauty of the Ioman dialect cannot give a charm to the process of preparing the pork for the feast of Penelope's suitors. How much the Egyptians, so far advanced in many branches of cryshzation, had accomplished in the art of cookery, Champolbon has not as yet informed us. The early Romans did not disdain to direct their attention, not only to husbandry, but also to cookery. Caro, in his book on agriculture, gives several recepts for dishes of flour and vegetables. The introduction or successful cultivetion of important vegetables was freguently the occasion of surnames, in the early times of Rome, as Lentulus, Fabius, The meals of the Romans consisted generally of three courses: the first contained light food, eggs, oysters, and the like, to excite the appetite; next came the brunt of war, as the ancients called it, made up of roast and boiled dishes, of every description; then followed the dessert (nunsa secundar) of fruit and pastry. Luxury in cating increased, when the Romans became acquainted with Asiatic magnificence, to such a degree that laws were required to keep it within bounds. Lucullus carned epicurism to the extreme. He erected several during halls in his palaces, and gave to each of them the name of some derty, which was a guide to the steward in regulating the etiquette and the expenses of the banquet: a cona,

for example, in the half of Apollo, comlars. It consisted of singing and talking birds, each of which was valued at 112 dollars. The son of the same actor entertained his friends with pearls, which he Under Tiberius, dissolved in vinegar. there were schools and teachers of cookery in Rome. One of the family of the Apicii invented many new dishes; for example, a salt dish of fishes' livers; also many cooking utensils, and the art of lattening swine on dried figs. Another wrote a book on cookery, and invented he art of keeping oysters fresh. The imperor Vitellius was once entertained y his brother with 2000 choice fishes and 1000 birds. Vitellius himself once had a angle dish prepared of the livers, the young, and the brain of many select birds and fishes. Roman cookery was remarkable for the almost universal use of oil or In the later ages of oily arbstances. Roman greatness, the object of the cook was to please the palate, rather than to provide for the healthful nourishment of the system. In the middle ages, the Italians, we outstripped the rest of the nations of arope in every branch of civilization, named, also, much earlier, a degree of acomplishment in the culmary art. They arried it to much perfection as early as in the sixteenth century, and probally earlier, as some passages of their novel lead us to suppose. The artists of that untry delighted much in convinal assebles, and the chief cook of St. Piur, Bartolommeo Scappi, published, m 157(an excellent work on the art of coory (Opera di Bartol. Scappi, cuoco secto di Papa Pio V divisa, etc. con il distro funerale, che fu fatto nelle esequie di pa Paolo III, 4to.). The princesses of o house of Medici appear to have traplanted the Itahan cookery to France, at ist to the French court. The Italian edery was, however, very similar to thof the ancient Romans, as even the me of preparing dishes at present prevent in Italy has still retained much of trancient character. We refer particuz if to the abundant use of oil. In fact, dcharacter prevails more or less in the exery of all nations of Latin descent. Ivever great the influence may have h which Italian cookery exercised on French system, it is to the inhabitants

of France that we owe the usage of seamonly cost 50,000 drachms, or 4687 dol-lars. Under Pompey, M. Aufridius Lurco whereby a much greater variety is ob-invented the fattening of peacocks, and, tained, and the dishes are, at the same invented the fattening of peacocks, and, tained, and the dishes are, at the same in this way, earned, in a short time, 60,000, time, more wholesome than those presenterta. During this period, an actor pared in the old modes. From the achad a dish prepared, which cost 1875 dolcounts of the household of Louis XV. it appears that the court dined with moderation. From eight to nine dishes only were served; but two thirds of the-meat used in the kitchen was taken for gravy. Of course, this was possible only in a royal kitchen; but the tendency of the modern culinary art appears clearly enough from this instance. The French, probably, were induced to make this change because only a small portion of the southern part of their country furnishes oil, and good butter is produced only in a small part of the north. When the French revolution brought the "third estate" into honor, the old national French soup, pot au feu, came into notice-a dish on which the French pride themselves justly. The new mode of cooking became now more and more popular. But, soon after the great excitement of the revolution had subsided, and men had leisure to think of their palates, an over-refined style of cookery was introduced, and gave rise to works like the Almanac des Courmands. The dishes of this latter period are not to be rashly ventured on, but to be eaten with a wise circumspection. The cookery of the English took quite a different turn from that of the Italians and French. Owing to their situation on an island, which prevented them from constant association with other nations, at least as far as respected the people at large, and probably owing, in part, to their national disposition, their cookery has been mostly confined to simple, strong and substantial dishes. The art of roasting has been dishes. carried by them to much perfection. With other English customs, the British cookcry likewise came to the U. States; but this country, which has departed from the English standard in regard to many things of more importance, has not confined itself to a servile imitation of English cookery, but has borrowed much from the European continent. Soup has become general; and, in preparing vegetables, the French way has been followed more than the English. But the system of cooking in the U. States has many defects. Many dishes are spoiled by butter and fat, and, on the whole, far too much meat is eaten—a very natural consequence of which is the everlasting complaint of dyspepsy. \_A country so rich in fruits ought to allow

them a large place in its cockery. If the culinary art should be properly investigated, many facts would be brought to light, which have as yet been little attended to. Thus, for instance, it would be very interesting, in a medical point of view, to show the injunate connexion of different diseases, in various countries, with the common dishes.

a fact which did not prevent him from becoming one of his provy council. After the deposition of Richard Cromwell, he was privately engaged in a plan for the restoration of Charles II, which he subsequently aided with all his influence. He was one of the twelve members who carried the invitation to the king, and was, soon after, made a privy counsellor, and a

COOMBE, William, author of several popular works, including the Diaboliad; · the Devil upon two Sticks in England, a continuation and imitation of Le Sage's novel, but far inferior, in spirit and graphic delineation, to the original; the Tour of Dr. Syntax in Search of the Picturesque, &c. The last mentioned poem was orig-mally written for Mr. Ackermann, and published, by him, in the Poetical Magazine with Rowlandson's illustrations. Mr. Ackermann, in 1812, published a history of Westminster Abbey, in two volumes, 4to., from the pen of this gentleman, who also was a principal contributor of essays, short pieces illustrative of engravings, &e., to many of his miscellames. Mr. Coombe's last poem was the History of Johnny Qua Genus, which, lake his Syntax, English Dance of Death, and Darice of Life, was accompanied by Row-, landson's prints. In his youth, Mr. Coombemherited a moderate fortune; which he soon dissipated; and, during the last years of his long life, hterature was his principal support. He died, June 18, 1823.

COOPER, Anthony Ashley, first earl of Shaftesbury, and a statesman of considerable enumence in the reign of Charles II, was born in 1621. At the age of fifteen, he entered Exeter college. Oxford, whence he removed to Lucoln's Inn, with a view to the study of law: but was chosen representance for Tewke-bury, in 1640, while only in his nuneteenth year. At the commencement of the civil war, he sided with the king's party, though the appeared to deem mutual concession necessary. In consequence of this opinion, finding hanself distrusted by the court, he went over to the parliament, and, in 1644, stormed Warham, and reduced all the adjacent parts. He had some share in the private negotiation between the king and lord Hollis, at the frutlest treaty of Uxbridge, and is said to have contrived the insurrection of the club men. When Cromwell-turned out the long parliament, sir Anthony was one of the members of the convention which succeeded. He was, nevertheless, a subscriber to the protestation, which charged the protector with arbitrary government,

becoming one of his privy council. After the deposition of Richard Cromwell, he was privately engaged in a plan for the restoration of Charles II, which he subsequently aided with all his influence. He was one of the twelve members who carmed the invitation to the king, and was, soon after, made a privy counsellor, and a commissioner for the trial of the regicides. In 1661, he was raised to the peerage, by the title of baron Ashley, and appointed cliancellor of the exchequer, and a lord of the treasury. He was also a leading member of the Cabal. He promoted the declaration for liberty of conscience; but, on the other hand, he supported the Dutch war, and issued illegal writs for the election of members of parliament during a recess, and, in other respects, exhibited much latitude of principle and of practice. In 1672, he was created earl of Shaftesbury and lord high chancellor, His conduct on the bench was able and impartial. He had not, however, been more than a year in office, when the seals were taken from him; and, from that moment, he became one of the most powerful leaders of the opposition. For his warmth in asserting that a porogotion of fifteen months amounted b a dissolution of parliament, he was counitted to the Fower, and was not releated until after a full submission. Where the popular plot, in 1678, was of hitcontrivance, is uncertain; but he madjuse of n to force out the earl of Danby'sdministration, and produce the formath of a new one, m which he was himselmade president of the council. Annimany violen, party proceedings which flowed, he was the author of that buly k of liberty, the habeas corpus act. He dy remained in the administration four diths, when the interest of the duke of ork once more prevailed against a stamman whose endeavors to promote a bill I his exclusion from the succession hadeen unremitting. On his dismissal fromfice, he was charged with having attelled subornation of perjury. He was, itonsequence, once more committed the Tower, and tried for high treason out was acquitted by the pury, amids ro-digious acclamations of the people—urcumstance which stimulated Dryde to the production of his celebrated in of Absalom and Achitophel, in the Shaftesbury is so unfavorably compaous. Not long after this acquittable earl withdrew to Holland, where herived in November, 1682, and where

22d of Jan. 1683. The career of this able, but dubious and versatile statesman, principles, and declares him to be rather a bold, active and enterprising man of expediency, than a great politician. Yet the character of a man sincerely esteemed by Locke, and other men of undoubted principle, is not to be implicitly taken from the odium excited by opposing party feelings. On the whole, this extraordinary person appears to have possessed many vices, always redocated by a great portion of ability, and a leaning to broad and liberal principles of government, when he could freely display it.

COOPER, Authory Ashley, third earl of Shaftesbury, a celebrated philosophical and moral writer, was born at Excterhouse, in London, in February, 1671. He was grandson to the subject of the preceding article, who early instructed him m Greek and Latm, placing about him a female who spoke those languages with He could read considerable fluency. them both with ease when only eleven years, of age. He was then placed at a private school, and finally removed to Winchester. At the latter establishment: he did not remain long, but went on his travels earlier than was customary. On his return to England, in 1689, he became the representative of Poole, in Dorsetshire, and distinguished himself, while in parhament, by his support of measures favorable to public liberty.. His health suffered so much by parliamentary attendance, that, in 1698, he gave up his seat, and, visiting Holland in the assumed character of a student of physic, he prosecuted his studies, and became artimately acquainted with Bayle, Le Clerc, and other literary men. On his return to England, he succeeded to the carldom; and, although not a constant attendant of the house of lords, he was always ready on important ocea-King William offered him the post of secretary of state, which his health would not allow him to accept. On the accession of Anne, he took leave of pubhe life, and once more visited Holland, to which he was much attached, where he remained for two years. In 1708, in consequence of the extravagances of the French prophets, he published his Letter on Enthusiasm, in which he opposed prosecution and personal punishments. In 1709, he published his Moralists, a Philosophical Rhapsody; being an elo-quent defence of the doctrine of a Deity and providence, on the Platonic model;

died, of the gout in his stomach, on the which piece is ranked by bishop Hurd among the most finished productions of the kind in the English language. His forms the best commentary on his public Sensus Communis soon followed, and, in 1710, his Soliloquy, or Advice to an Author; after which his health declined so rapidly, that he was advised to fix his residence at Naples, in which city he died, in February, 1713, in the forty-second year of his age, but not before he had finished his Judgment of Hercules, and Letter concerning Design. His works appeared, in three volumes, 8vo., in 1713, under the title of Characteristics of Men, Manner, Opimons and Times. In 1716, some of his private letters, upon philosophical and theological subjects, were published, under the title of Several Letters, written by a Noble Lord to a Young Man at the University, Sve,; and, in 1721, another collection, entitled Letters from the Right Honorable the Earl of Shaffesbury to Robert Molesworth, Esquire, &c. The principal aftention of lord Shaftesbury was, however, directed to the writings of antiquey, on which he built a civil, social and theistic kind of philosophy. In his Essay on Wif and Humor, he defends the application of ridicule, as a test of truth, in regard to? religion, as well as other matters. His principal ment is a lively and elegant mode of discussion, somewhat fettered, by his uncommon solicitude in regard to style, to which no English author has attended with more assiduity. In all his works, lord Shafte-bury appears a zealous advocate for liberty, and a firm believer in the fundamental doctrines of natural religion; but, although he professed a respect for Christianity, he was doubtless sceptical in regard to revelation, and sometimes indulged his humor, on seriptural points, with correspondent indeco-In a moral point of view, his character was very estimable, both as a public and as a private man, and obtained the suffrages of all who knew him.

Cooper, sir Astley Paston, bart., F.R.S. This highly distinguished surgeon was borum Gadesborough, county of Heriford, England, Aug. 23, 1768. He has filled the most responsible public offices in his profession, and has enjoyed an unequalled share of private confidence. He was one of the surgeons to Guy's hospital, and lecturer on surgery and anatomy in St. Thomas's hospital, London, is surgeon to the king, and, in July, 1821, was created a baronet. In Burke's Peerage, he is spoken of as having attained to the "highest eininence in the surgical profession;" aid no

oue who has heard him lecture, witnessed his operations, or studied his published works, will question his claims to this distinction. His principal works are the splendid volume On the Anatomy and Surgical Treatment of Inguinal and Congenital Hernia, which appeared in 1804; the continuation and completion of the same work in the volume on Crural and Umbilical Hernia, in 1807; his work on Dialocations and Fractures; and the Lectures on the Principles and Practice of Surgery, which last have recently been published under his inspection, from notes of his lectures taken by Mr. F. Tyrrell. Besides these extended works, sir Astley has enriched various periodicals, journals and transactions, with papers of great practical value. His latest undertaking is a work in folio, On the Diseases of the Female Breast. Only a part of this has as yet appeared. Sir Astlev is highly esteemed for his originality, boldness and success as a practical surgeon. He was the first to operate for carotid aneurism; and the whole profession bears witness to the genius which suggested this great operation; and its blessings are now almost the daily occurrences of practical surgery. Sir Astley was also the first to tie the aorta—perhaps the boldest attempt of the surgical act—and, although the operation was musuccessful, still it was shown not to be immediately, we may add necessarily, destructive to life; and, in more favorable cases, it may save from death. No foreign surgeon has been so much resorted to by persons from the U. States, whose cases required consummate skill; and they have been among those who have had large experience of as amount and its advantages. As a public teacher, too, sir Astley will be long remembered by the profession in the U. States. He had a singular felicity in communicating to others the knowledge he so largely pos-sessed. He was truly a beautiful lecturer. A manner grave, simple, energetic, characterized his prefections. He demanded and received the closest and most respectful attention. The smallest sound, in his crowded theatre, were it but the creaking of a shoe, arrested his inind in the midst of the sentence he was uttering; and, without changing his position, and scarcely altering his voice, he would direct his demonstrator to remove from the room the occasion of his annoyance, and then bass on with his subject as if no interruption had occurred. This control of his audience is particularly mentioned, for there is, perhaps, no place in which, from

the numbers and the variety of the individuals collected, the attention is commanded with more difficulty than in the crowded lecture-room of a foreign hospital. Sir Astley has, within a very few years, retired from his labors at the hospitals, and is now enjoying the fruits of successful industry and talent. His early history has not been glanced at; but there was nothing in its circumstances which distinguished him from the crowds of young men who have to depend upon themselves for success and for fame; and now that he enjoys both these so largely, he yet feels he has a debt to pay, and is still found among the most

useful laborers for the public.

COOPER, Samuel, minister in Boston, son of the reverend William Cooper, was born March 28, 1725. He gave early indi-cations of great powers of nund, and, after having been graduated at Harvard college, in 1743, devoted himself to the church. When but 20 years of age, he acquired great reputation as a preacher, and was chosen to succeed his father as colleague with the reverend doctor Colman, in Boston. He continued in this situation until his death, which happened Dec. 29, 1783, in the 59th year of his age. As a preacher, doctor Cooper was, perhaps, the most distinguished man of his day in the U. States. He was a sincere and liberal Christian, and of a charitable disposition. He was not only a great theologian, but was also extremely well versed in other branches of learning, particularly in the classics. He was one of the original founders of the American academy of arts and serences, of which he was the first vice-president. His patriotispe prompted him to take a decided part/against Great Britain. He was efficacious in procuring foreign albances, and was often consulted by some of the most prominent of the revolutionary characters. His manners were those of a finished gentleman. With the exception of his political writings, which were published in the journals of the day, his productions were exclusively sermons.

COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES. For several years, there has been a society in London for the purpose of encouraging the forma-tion of working communities among the laboring classes; they published the Co-operative Magazine, and, about three years ago, a few intelligent and industrious workmen at Brighton (England) formed the Brighton cooperative society. ges," say the cooperatives, " have been and are continually diminishing. The independent day-laborer has almost ceased to

to find hunself in the same situation. Machinery, which multiplies the products. has diminished the demand for workmen, and in consequence, their wages. whole secret of the remedy lies in this, that the laborers do not work for themselves, but for the capitalists: if they could work for themselves, they would get the whole produce of their labor, of which they now get only an eighth, or, at most, a fourth. To do this, they must have capital, which must be obtained by union and saving. Societies may be formed, each member of which pays a small periodical subscription. Instead of putting this out in savings-banks, or investing it m different securities, which yield a small interest, because the capital is employed by others, who must have their profits from it, let the workmen employ themselves on this capital, and thus obtain the whole produce of it themselves. They may purchase goods by the wholesale, and sell them at the usual prices to the members. Thus the profits on the articles sold will go to increase their own capital, instead of going into others' hands. 'As the capital increases, the society will be able to find work for the members, the whole produce of which will become common property, instead of enriching other employers. After a while all the members may be thus employed, and they will soon become able to purchase land, cultivate it, establish manufactories, provide for all their wants,-food, clothing, &c.; and thus receive all the produce of the labor of the whole." This reasoning is not mere speculation; has actually been carried into practice. The Brighton society, above mentioned, is in a flourishing condition, and has been followed by mumerous others in different parts of England. "There are now," says the Quarterly Review (Nov., 1829), "upwards of 70 cooperative societies in England, and they are spreading so rapidly, that, by the time this number of our Review is pub-bshed, there will be nearly 100." But the mercase was greater than was anticipated; since the Sunday Atlas of Dec. 6, 1829, gives the number at nearly 150. The benefits which the cooperators promise themselves, are, 1, relief from all four of poverty, the sick, aged, widows and orphans being provided for by the society; 2, the supply of the comforts of life with-- out that incessant labor which the low rate of wages how requires; 3. leisure and means for the improvement of their moral

without parish aid; the mechanic begins that these are not establishments of charity, being established by the poor themselves; that they encourage industry, since each individual must depend, as much as ever, on his own exertions, which are more suitably rewarded, and promote good morals by a strict inquiry into the moral character of such as are desirous of admission to their privileges.

COPAL is a somewhat resinous sul-Annee, obtained from a tree (rhus copallinum) which has winged and very entire leaves, the foot-stalks membranaceous and jointed, and is a native of several parts of America. Considerable quantities of copal are annually exported from the Spanish colonies in America, in irregular masses, some of which are transparent, of a yellowish or brown color; and others are whitish and semi-transparent. solution in different ways, it is made into a most beautiful and perfect varnish, which has the name of copal varnish. One mode of making this is by melting the copal with an equal quantity of linsced oil; another by mixture with oil of turpentine; and a third, by mixture with alco-hol, or spirit of wine. Copal is the varnish which is chiefly applied to snuff-boxe-, tea-boards, anotother similar articles.

COPARTNERSHIP. (See Partnership.) Coreck(kopcika); a Russian copper com, so called from the impression of St. George bearing a lance). A hundred of them make one ruble. (thee Coin.) The value of the copper coin, compared with the assignation-tuble, varies in the different governments.

COPENHAGER (in Damsh, Knoebenhavn); the capital of the kingdom of Denmark. and the residence of the king; 55° 41′ 4″ N. lat.; 12° 33′ 6″ E. lon.; on the island of Zealand, in the Sound, and on a narrow branch of the sea, which separates it from the island of Amack. Copenhagen is fortified, contains a chadel called Fredericshaven, and is well huilt, with regular, well-lighted streets, and fine houses, prin-cipally of buck. It contains 230 streets and 13 public places, the largest of which. but irregularly built, is the new king's-market, with the statue of Christian 1. and the octangular Frederic's-place, in which four streets meet, and in the centre of which is the fine statue of king Frederic V on horseback. Copen hagen contains 22 churches, 22 hospitals, 30 almshouses, 3 convents, and 105,000 mlmb itants, among whom are 2400 Jewrs. The town is composed of three principal divisions, which are enclosed by the fortifications, viz. the old town, which has been

. 41 VOL. III.

much improved since the fire; the new works of Thorwaldsen (q. v.) adorn the town, of which the eastern (the finest, but least lively part) is called Fredericstadt; and Christianshaven, which is situated on the island of Amack, and is separated from the island of Zealand by an arm of the This channel forms a safe harbor, capable of admitting 400 vessels, where the naval arsenal, the dock, and other buildings requisite for the navy, are situated. This is, likewise, the station of the fleet. Outside of the fortifications are three suburbs, partly composed of fine country-seats. Formerly, there were four royal palaces at Copenhagen; but, in 1794, the most splendid of these (one of the largest palaces of Europe, called Christiansburg) became a prey to the flames, so that only the rums and the splendid stables remained. The other three palaces are Charlottenburg, now the \* repository of the academy of arts, and furnished with a gallery of paintings; the old royal palace Rosenburg, where many antiques and precious articles are kept, adjoinmg to which is the king's garden, a public promenade; and the Amahenburg, consisting, properly speaking, of four palaces, which were purchased for the residence of the king after the fire had consumed the palace. Among the other buildings worthy of being mentioned are, the arsenal, in which is the coval library, containing 250,000 volumes and 3000 manuscripts (according to a late number of the Foreign Review, it contains 400,000 volumes); the theatre; the exchange, with the bank: the Trimty church, and the beautiful Frederic's church; the large, beautiful, and admirably arranged Flederic's hospitals the foundling, lying-uk, and marine hospitals. Among the scientific establishments are the university, founded in 1475, with 4 faculties, 200 ordinary and 16 extraordinary professors, a library of 100,000 volumes, with valuable Northern and Oriental manuscripts; a botanical garden and an observatory; the royal surgical academy, which has about 200 students; the academ'ry for military cadets and midshipmen; the royal and university library; the poublic library of Classen, with 30,000 volumes, founded, in 1776, by two brothers, manued Classen; several public and pulivate muscums; the royal academy of sciences and arts; the society for the study of the Northern languages and history; the Iceland and Scandinavian someieties; the surgical academy; 114 scknools, among which is 1 for the deaf skind dumb, and I for the blind; the veterinary school; the gymnastic establishment, &c. Many of the admired

churches and palaces of Copenhagen. Besides immerous sorts of mechanics and artists. Copenhagen contains manufactories, which employ 14,000 hands. Among these are the royal manufactory of porcelain, the manufactories of cloth, calleo, silk, cotton, oil-cloth and paper-hangings, the iron-founderies, and 18 sugar-refineries, with 520 workmen. Copenhagen is the centre of the domestic and foreign commerce of Denmark, which is promoted by the royal bank (founded, in 1736, by Christian VI), the marine usurance company, the East and West India companies, and by the beautiful harbor, into which about 5000 vessels enter annually. From the 2d to the 5th of Sept., 1807, the town was bombarded by the English, and 305 houses and other edifices, among which was a beautiful church, were entirely burnt, and 2000 houses injured so as to be rendered uninhabitable: 2000 persons, partly of the garrison and partly citizens, lost their lives. The environs of Copenhagen are, some of them, very fine. In the neighborhood are the summer palaces of the king-Fredericsberg, the usual summer residence of the court, Hirschholm, Friedensburg and Jägerpreis. In 1168, Copenhagen was a fisher's hamlet, which was given by the king to bishop Axel (See Absalom), who fortified it against the pirates, then numerous on the islands. Gradually it rose to great importance, but, of late, its commerce has sunk very much.

Coperateus, Nicholas; born at Thorn, on the Vistula, Feb. 19, 1473, where his father had become a citizen 10 years before. It is supposed that his family came originally from Wespshaha. His mother was sister to the Vishop of Ermeland. From a school at Thorn, Copernicus went to Cracow, where he studied medicine, and received the degree of doctor. At the same time, he studied mathematics and astronomy. The fame of Peurbach and Regiomontanus, the restorers of astronomy in Europe, excited his emulation. At the age of 23, he went to Italy, where the arts and sciences were beginning to flourish, after the fall of the Byzantine empire. At Bologna, he was instructed in astronomy by Dominicus Maria, whose intimate friend he became. In 1500, he taught, mathematics at Rome with great success, and was already placed by the side of Regiomontanus. From Rome he returned to his own country, where his uncle made him a canon in the cathedral of Frauenburg. In-1521, he was sent, by the chapter, to the diet of Graudentz, one of the principal

objects of which was to put an end to the difficulties which had arisen from the irregular coining of money. Here he proposed a plan for establishing a general mint at the public expense; but the cities of Elbing, Dantzic and Thorn would not give up their right of coining, and the plan of Copernicus was not carried into effect. He now applied his whole strength to the contemplation of the sublime objects of Among the many hypotheses, nature. with regard to our planetary system, which had been advanced during the previous 2000 years, one had at last prevailed, the most ingenious, and artificial, and the most wonderful mixture of sagacity and error which the human mind has ever conceived. Pythagoras, Aristotle, Plato, Hipparchus, Archimedes, and others, had all adopted it. It was called the system of Ptolemy. (See System of the Universe, and Ptolemy.) Copernicus doubted whether the motions of the heavenly bodies could be so confused and so complicated as this hypothesis would make them; for nature follows, he thought, more sumple laws; and, as soon as these are found, they must explain, with simplicity, the most compli-He found, in the cated appearances. writings of the ancients, that Nicetas, Heraclides and Ecphontus had thought of the possibility of a motion of the earth. This induced him to examine the subject more fully. The hypothesis of Aristarchus of Samos-that the earth revolves in an oblique circle around the sun, and also revolves daily on its own axis-Copermeus could not yet have seen; for it is found in no work previous to his time, except the Arenario of Archimedes, which was first printed at Vence, at a later period. Co-pernicus now assumed that the sun was the centre of the system; that the earth was a planet, like Mars and Venus; and that all the planets revolve round the sun in the following order:-Mercury, in 87 days; Venus, in 224; the Earth, in 365; Mars, in 1 year and 321 days; Jupiter, in 11 years; and Saturn, in 20 years. When he afterwards described their paths, he found that these circles, notwithstanding their simplicity, fully explained all the motions of the heavenly bodies, and that the apparent stations and retrogradations of the planets necessarily resulted from the motion of the carth. Thus was discovered the true system of the universe. Thus Copernicus stands, as it were, upon the boundary line of a new era. (See Earth, and Astronomy.) He died June 11, 1543, in the 71st year of his age. His great countryman, Kepler, has described

his character in the following words:-Copernicus, vir maximo ingenio, et quod in hoc exercitio magni momenti est, animo liber. The great and excellent character of this philosopher best appears in the letter with which he addresses his work to the pope. Excommunication, however, was issued from the Vatican against Copernicus, and it was not till 278 years after the publica-tion of the work, in 1821, that the papal court annulled the sentence.—Let us rewiew the progress of Copernicus' discovery. He commences his labors at a time when the behef in the immobility of the earth is universal. He conceives the idea of its motion, and pursues it with unwearied diligence, not for a few years, but through the greater part of his life, constantly comparing it with the appearances in the heavens. He at last confirms his idea, and thus becomes the founder of a new system of astronomy. All this he did, a hundred years before the invention of telescopes, with miserable wooden instruments, on which the lines were often only marked with ink. In his immortal work, dedicated to the pope, Paul III, De Orbium calestium Revolutionibus, libri vi (first published at Nüremburg, 1543, folio; later editions appeared at Basic, 1566, and Amsterdam, 1617), his system is developed. Besides this principal work, we have, by the same author, Astronomia Instaurata, in 6 books, and a work, De Lateribus et Ingulis Triangulorum. His principal work was completed in 1530; but he determined to publish it only at the repeated solicitations of his friends. As the first appression appeared May 24, 1543, Coperficus emoyed but for a few days the ple dark, of seeing his work in the hands of sulf tworld. (See Rhæticus, Narratio de Li, sulf Revol. calest. Copernici, Dantzic, 1546, d a). He there advances his system merely as a hypothesis, which explains, in a more simple and natural manner than the previous ones, the phenomena of the heavens. This was a prenomena of the heavens. This was a precaution which the prepublices of the times obliged him to take; but our inspection of the book shows with what full and thorough conviction he was persuaded that his system was the only possible one. Gassendi, as well as Lacht enberg, has written a Lafe of Copernicus (17 ta Nic. Copernici. Accessit Gassendi Vita Tycho-Brahei, Hague, 1652, 4to.). See, also, Adam's Vita Philosophorum Germanorum, page 26. Doctor Westphal has given a good, narrative of the life of Nicholas Copernicus (Constance, 1822). Count Sierakowsky has crected a monument to his memory, in

St. Anne's church at Cracow, with this ne moveare. Thorwaldsen, the greatest sculptor of the age, has executed a colossal statue of Copernicus, for the city of Cracow, which is one of the most noble specimens of modern art.

Copiapo ; a jurisdiction in Chile, rich in gold-mines, situated in the north part of There are likewise mines of iron, copper, sulphur, lead, mercury, silver and lapis lazuli. Arsenic also is found. Salt-

petre is common.

Corrago: a seaport of Chile, which gives its name to the jurisdiction; 140 miles N. N. W. Rioja; Ion. 71° 18' W.; lat. 27° 10' S.; population, 1700. It is situated on a river of the same name, 12 leagues from the sea. The houses are irregularly built.

Corney, John Singleton, a self-taught and distinguished painter, was born in 1738, in Boston, Massachusetts, and died Copley began to in London, in 1815. paint at a very early age; and pieces, executed by him in Bostoln, before (to use his own words) he had seen any tolerable picture, and certainly before he could have received any instruction, in the art of painting, from the lips of a master, show his nat-ural talent, and, in fact, were unsurpassed by his later productions. He did not visit Italy till 1774. In 1776, he went to England, where he met his wifel and children, whom he had left in Boston. As the struggle between England fund America had begun in 1775, there was neither a good opportunity for Mr. Copley to return to his native land, which he always seems to have had in view, if or was there much hope of success for an fartist in the convulsed state of the covering. He therefore devoted himself terraterant painting in London, and was che 2007 a member of the royal academy. 1880 first picture which may be called instolical, was the Youth rescued from a Shark; but the picture styled Death of Lord Chatham, which represent- the great orator fainting in the house of lords, sitg r the memorable speech in favor of America, and contains, at the same time, the portraits of all the leading men of that hypuse, at once established this In 17,00, Copley was sent, by the city of Longion, to Hanover, to take the portraits of the four Hanoverian officers, commandairs of regiments associated with the British troops under general Ehot (afterwar, ds lord Heathfield), at the defence of Gibraltar, in order to introduce them in the lave ge picture, which he was about making 4 or the city, of the siege and relief of Gilg raltar, which was afterwards placed in

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the council-chamber of Guildhall. Mr. Copinscription, taken from the Bible:-Sta, sol, ley pursued his profession with unabated ardor, until his sudden death, in 1815. Besides the pictures already mentioned, and a number of portraits, including those of several members of the royal family, the most distinguished of his productions are Major Picrson's Death on the Island of Jersey; Charles I, in the House of Commons, demanding of the Speaker Lenthall the five impeached Members, containing the portraits of the most distinguished members of that house; the Surrender, of Admiral de Winter to Lord Duncan, on maid the Venerable, off Cumperdown; Sumuel and Eli, &c.; of all of which engravings exist, though of some (for instance, of the last-mentioned piece), they are extremely rare. His cldest and only surviv-

mg, son,

Corley, John Singleton, lord Lyndhurst, high chancellor of England, was born in Boston, Massachusetts, May 21, 1772; went, with his mother and sisters, in 1775, to England (see the preceding article); was sent, at the age of seven years, to a boarding-school at Clapham, near London, and, after the lapse of a few years, was placed under the reverend doctor Horne of Chiswick, with whom he i moned until he entered Tringy college, cambridge. He distinguished himself here by assiduous application, won many prizes, and received the high degree of second wrangler. He afterwards obtained a lay fellowship, and, in 1795, visited the U. States under a travelling fellowship of the college, made extrangements with regard to some family property at Boston, and travelled, in company with Mr. Bollmann (q. v.), to Amgara, into Canada, &c., on horseback, which was very different from the mode of performing similar tours at present. In 1798, he returned to England, connuenced the study of the law at Iancoln's Inn, and was, for two years, with Mr. Tidd, a distinguished special pleader. In 1816, Mr. Copley was elected member of parliament for Yannouth. In 1819, he took the degree of sergeant-atlaw, and was M. P. for Ashburton, having been made chief-justice of Chester in 1818. In 1819, he first became known to the public at large by his able assistance of sir Charles Wetherel, in his defence of the elder Watson, and afterwards by an equally. able defence of Thistlewood, both accused of high treason. 'Wetherel' and Copley were then the idols of the populace, and their names were placarded on every corner. After these displays of talent, the government felt the importance

of securing his services. He was, therefore, sent to attend the special commission at Derby, for the trial of Brandreth and his companions. In 1819, he was made solicitor-general, in time to involve him officially in the proceedings against the queen, Caroline (q. v.), in which he assisted the attorney-general. In 1824, he was made attorney-general. He became the friend of Canning, and so remained until the death of this minister. In 1826, Mr. Copley was chosen M. P. for the university of Cambridge, after an arduous struggle. In a few months, on the death of lord Gifford, he was made master of the rolls. April 30, 1827, he was made lord high chancellor of England, after Cauning had been appointed prime minister, April 12, 1827, and lord Eldon (q. v.) had resigned, and after he had declared himself against Catholic emancipation. April 25, 1827, he was created lord Lyndhurst. His armorial motto-ultra pergere ---may well apply to his former career; but he has now reached the highest point When Wellington's of judicial honor. administration was formed, lord Lyndhurst remained in office.

Copper is of a red color, with a tinge of yellow, having considerable lustre, but liable to tarmsh and rust from exposure to It is moderately hard, and has the air. considerable duetility and malleability. Its specific gravity is 8.78. It has a sensible odor, especially when heated or rubbed, a styptic, impleasant taste, and is peculiarly poisonous to annuals. In treating of this metal, we shall defer our account of its ores, which are numerous, until we have concluded its chemical history.—Copper melts at a full white heat, and, by slow cooling, may be cry callized. It suffers oxidation at a lower temperature from the ' action of the air, thin scales of oxide forming on its surface when it is heated to redness. At a higher heat, it burns with a green flame. Exposure to air and humidity, at the natural temperatures, converts it into a green rust, which is the oxide combined with a portion of earboine acid. -There are two oxides of copper. The · protoxide is of a red color, and occurs native, in the form of octoedral crystals, in the mines of Cornwall. It is also prepared artificially, by mixing 64 parts of metallic copper, in a state of fine division, with 80 parts of the peroxide, and heating the mixture to reduces in a close vessel; or by boiling a solution of the acetate of copper with sugar, when the peroxide is gradually deoxidized, and subsides as a red powder. It consists of one atom, or

proportional, of copper, 64, and one of oxygen, 8, = 72. The sulphuric, muriatic, and probably several other acids, form with it salts, which, for the most part, are colorless. On exposure to the air, they attract oxygen, and are rapidly converted into per-salts. The peroxide of copper is also found native, and may be prepared artificially by calcining metallic copper, by precipitation from the per-salts of copper, by means of pure potash, or by heat-Ing the nitrate of copper to redness. It is composed of one atom of copper, 64, and two of oxygen, 16, == 80. It varies in color from a dark-brown to a bluish-black, is insoluble in water, and does not affect the vegetable blue colors. It undergoes no change by heat alone, but is readily reduced to the metallic state by heat and combustible matter. It combines with nearly all the acids, and most of its salts have a green or blue tint. It is soluble, likewise, in ammonia, forming with it a deep blue solution—a property by which the perovide of copper is distinguishable trom all other substances. Metallic copper is oxidated and dissolved by the greater number of the acids, and forms with them, in general, soluble and crystallizable salts.—Sulphuric acid, either concentrated or diluted, oxidates it, and combines with the peroxide, especially when resisted by heat. The solution is of a blue color, and, when evaporated, affords crystals in the form of rhomboidal prisms. This salt is the blue vitriol of commerce, and is usually obtained, either by evaporation of the solution of it, formed by the infiltration of water through copper mmes, or by exposure of sulphuret of copper to the action of air and humidity, until the sulphur is converted into sulphure acid, and the metal is oxidated and combined with it. Natric acid acts on copper with great energy, the metal attracting a portion of its ox, gen, nitric oxide gas being disengaged, and the oxide combining with the remaining acid. The solution, when evaporated, affords prismatic crystals, of a deep-green color, dehquescent, and easily soluble in water. From the facility with which it parts with oxygen, it acts with energy on Thus it detonates several substances. when struck with phosphorus, and it burns several of the metals. If wrapped in tinfoil, the tin is oxidated with such rapidity as to be attended with inflammation. - Muriatic acid dissolves copper slowly, when the air is admitted: if it is excluded, the action is very inconsiderable, unless heat is applied. The solution is of a fine green color, and, by evaporation, slonder pris-

44 \*

matic crystals are obtained, which are deliquescent, and very soluble in water.— The combinations of peroxide of copper with phosphoric, carbonic, and other acids. are effected by adding to a solution of mitrate or sulphate of copper a solution of a neutral salt, containing the acid with which the copper is designed to be combined. Copper is slowly oxidated by a number of weaker acids, as by some vegetable juices, when acted on by them with the admission of air. Acetic acid, or vinegar, in particular, forms an important compound with the oxide of copper. To obtain it, copper plates are exposed to the times of vinegar. A crust is soon formed of a green color, which is the verdigris of commerce.—All the salts of copper are decomposed by the alkalies and earths. Potash, soda, and the alkaline earths, throw down precipitates, which are of various shades of green or blue, according to the quantity of alkali added, the color being green, if a small quantity is added, and becoming blue from a larger quantity. These precipitates are sub-salts, the alkali attracting the greater portion of the acid, but the oxide precipitated still retaining a portion of the acid combined with it:— The action of ammonia upon the salts of copper is more remarkable. It first abstracts a portion of the acid, and throws down a green or blue precipitate, which is a sub-salt; but, when added in larger quantity, it redissolves this precipitate, and forms a transparent solution, of a very deep-blue color, which, when evaporated, affords fine blue crystals. A triple compound, used in medicine under the name of ammoniuret of copper, is prepared by triturating together two parts of sulphate of copper with one part of carbonate of ammonia, the mass becoming soft from the mutual action of the two salts, the carbonic acid being disengaged with effervescence, and the triple compound of sulphuric acid, oxide of copper, and animonia, being obtained of a deep violet-blue color.—Copper is precipitated to its metallic state, from its' saline solutions, by zinc and iron; either of these metals, attracting the oxygen which serves as the medium of its umon with the acid of the Its oxide is precipitated by alsolution. burnen, and the precipitate is almost inert; hence the whites of eggs have been recommended as an antidote to the poisonous salts of copper.—The best mode of detecting copper, when suspected to be present in mixed fluids, is by sulphureted hydrogen. The sulphuret, after being sollested, should be placed on a piece of 'Keller, who were very celebrated statue-

porcelain, and digested in a few drops of nitric acid. A sulphate of copper is formed, which, when evaporated to dryness. strikes the characteristic deep blue, on the addition of a drop of ammonia.—Copper and sulphur unite by fusion, the combination being attended with the evolution of heat and light. A bi-sulphuret of copper also crists in copper pyrites.—Copper combines with a great number of the metals by fusion. It communicates hardness to gold and silver, without much impairing their ductility, or debasing their color, when in small proportion; hence it is employed in the standard alloys of these metals, that of gold containing one tweltth, that of silver one sixteenth, of the mass. With platina, it forms an alloy, ductile, 🚙 and susceptible of a fine polish. With tm, it forms several valuable alloys, which are characterized by their sonorousness.

Bronze is an alloy of copper, with about 8 or 10 per cent, of tru, together with small quantities of other metals, which are not essential to the compound. Cannons are cast with an alloy of a similar kind, and the ancient bronze statues were of nearly the same composition. (See Bronzes.)

Bell-Metal is composed of 80 parts of copper and 20 of tin. The Indian gong, so much celebrated for the richness of its tones, contains copper and tin in this proportion. The proportion of tin in bellmetal varies, however, from one third to one fifth of the weight of the copper, according to the sound required, the size of the bell, and the impulse to be given. M d'Arect has discovered that bell-metal, tormed in the proportion of 78 parts of copper, united with 22 of tm, is, indeed, nearly as brittle as glass, when cast in a thin plate, or going; Jet, if it be heated to a cherry red, and plunged into cold water. being held between two plates of iron. that the plate may not bend, it becomes malleable. Gongs, cymbals and tamtums have been manufactured with this compound.

Brass. Copper and zinc unite in several proportions, forming alloys of great importance in the arts. The best brass consists of four parts of copper to one of zme; and, when the latter is in greater proportion, compounds are formed called tombac, Dutch gold and pinchbeck. An al loy called Bath metal is made by adding 9 founds of zinc to 32 of brass; and an extremely pale, nearly white metal, used by the button-makers of Birmingham, under the name of platina, by adding 5 pounds of zine to 8 of brass. The brothers

tounders, used an alloy, 10,000 parts of which contained 9140 of copper, 553 of zinc, 170 of tin, and 137 of lead. Their castings are famous, and some are of very large size, as the equestrian statue of Louis XIV, cast at a single jet, by Balthazar Keller, in 1699, which is 21 feet high, and weighs 53,263 French pounds. These statues are usually called bronze statues, although made of brass. Brass was well known to the Romans, under the name resemblance to gold, in robbing the temples, and other public places, of that pre-cious metal. Thus Julius Casar robbed the capital of 3000 pounds weight of gold, and Vitellius despoiled the temples of their gifts and ornaments, and replaced them with this inferier compound.

The art of tinning copper consists in covering that metal with a thin layer of tm, in order to protect its surface from rusting. For this purpose, pieces of tin are placed upon a well-polished sheet of copper, which, if the process is skilfully conducted, adhere uniformly to its surface. The oxidation of the tin—a circumstance which would entirely prevent the success of the operation—is avoid id by employing fragments of resm, or muriate of ammonta, and regulating the temperature with great

care.

ORES OF COPPER.-1. Native Copper, like the metal, is of a red color, but frequently tarmshed. Its lustre is metallie: it is flexible, ductile and malleable: its fracture is hackly. It occurs in branched pieces, dendrine, in thin plates, and rarely in regular crystals, under the form of the cube or octoedron. It is found in the venis of primitive rocks and of the older secondary. It is occlaionally accompanied by several of the ores of copper, and sometimes those of other metals. One of the largest masses of this substance ever noticed was discovered by Schoolcraft, in the North West Territory, about 30 miles from lake Superior, on the west bank of the river Ontonagon. It weighs, by testimation, 2200 pounds. It has near the water's edge, at the foot of an elevated bank of allowon. Native copper is fiequently found in connexion with the secondary greenstone and red sandstone formutton in the U. States. Its greatest known depositories, however, are the mines of Cornwall in England.

2. Sulphuret of Copper. Under this name may be described a series of ores containing copper, sulphur, and variable proportions of other metals, which, by some mineralogists, are conceived to passinto each other, and, of course, are insproperly arranged as distinct species. In principal varieties are the vitreous copper . ore, the purple copper, gray copper, and

yellow copper pyrites.
a. Vitreous Copper is of a lead or irongray color. It occurs crystallized in regular six-sided prisms, mostly modified on the terminal edges, and in acute, double, six-sided pyramids, with triangular planes. It also occurs massive. The cross-fracof orichalcum, who took advantage of its sture of the crystallized is often conchoidal, with a vitreous lustre: the massive varies greatly in respect of hardness and color. It is sometimes sectile and soft. fracture is even, or tlat conchoidal. cific gravity, 4.8 to 5.4. It consists, according to Chenevix, of 81 copper and 19 sulphur. It occurs in veins and beds, in primitive and early secondary rocks, and is found with other eres of copper. In the U. States, it has been met with very often in the old red sandstone, but is nowhere wrought, as yet, to advantage. It abounds in Cornwall, and many European countries.

b. Purple Copper occurs both massive and crystallized. Its color is between copper-red and tombac-brown. It is often, possessed of an indescent tarnish, in which blue is apt to prevail. The general form of the crystal is that of a cube, of which the solid angles are replaced. It is soft, easily frangible, and sectile in a slight degree. Specific gravity, 5.033. Norway consists of copper 69.50, sulphur 19, iron 7.50, and oxygen 4. It is fusible into a globule, which acts powerfully upon the magnetic needle. The purple copper is found in Norway, Saxony and England, and occurs under similar circumstances with the other ores of copper.

c. The Gray Copper, or Fahlerz, is of a steel-gray or iron-black color. It occurs crystallized in the form of the tetracdron. in which no regular structure is visible: it also occurs massive and disseminated. Its tracture is uneven or imperfectly conchordal, with a shunng or glistening metallic lustre. It is brittle. Specific gravity, 4.5. It consists of 52 copper, 23 iron, and 14 sulphur; but it also contains, mixed with these constituents, various other metal-, in very variable proportions, as lead, antimony and silver. It occurs in Russia, France, Spain, England, Chile and Mex-

d. Yellow Copper Ore, or Copper Pyrites, ocours of various shades of yellow, crystallized in the form of the tetraedron, having the solid angles replaced, and massive. It is also stalactine and botryoidal. It is

brittle, yields to the knife, and may there. variously acuminated, and modified by by easily be distinguished from iron pyrites, which it often much resembles. Specific gravity, 4.3. It contains copper 30, iron 32.20, sulphur 35.16, earthy matter 0.50, lead, arseme and loss, 2.14. It is the most abundant of all the ores of copper, and affords, almost exclusively, the copper of commerce. It exists both in primitive and secondary rocks, and is accompanied by most of the other ores of copper, sometimes galena, oxide of tin, and several of the ores of iron. It is found in North and South America, most European countries, in Japan and Africa. In the year ending June 30, 1817, 73,727 tons of copper ore (principally copper pyrites), which sold for £410,£36, and yielded 6425 tons of pure copper, were raised from the mines of Cornwall only; being. more than three fourths of the quantity raised from the British mines.

Red Oxide of Copper is of a red color, varying greatly in its shades, and, by transmitted light, often of a crimson red. It occurs crystallized in the form of the octoedron, and its varieties, which are very numerous. The crystals are externally splendent, but sometimes of a lead-gray color, with a metallic lustic. The crossfracture is sometimes uneven; oftener conchoidal, with a splendent and somewhat adamantme lustre. It is transparent, or translucent, yields easily to the Knife, and is brutle. Specific gravity, 1.9 to 5.6. It consists, according to Chenevix. of 88.5 copper, and 11.5 of oxygen. Red oxide of copper is also found in delicate capillary crystals, as well as massive, when it is opaque, and frequently granular in its fracture. The brick-red, or the copper ore, which occurs carthy, or a little inducated, appears to be a mixture of oxide of copper and oxide of ron. This species is found in the primitive and transition rocks, associated with the other ores of copper. It is found finely crystallized in the English mines, and at Chessy in France. It also occurs in the Hartz, the Bannat, Hungary, Chile and Peru, but, hitherto, has not been found, except in very limited quantities, in the U. States.

4. Carbonate of Copper. Oxide of copper, combined with carbonic acid, forms two species—the blue and the green carbonate; the differences between which arise either from different states of oxidation, or in part from the combination of water.

a. Blue Carbonate, or Azure Copper Ore, is found in shining, translucent crystals, whose figure is that of rhombic prisms,

secondary planes. The color is azure-blue, frequently of great intensity. It sometimes occurs in an earthy form, as an incrustation; and is occasionally massive, without lustre. As analyzed by Mr. Phillips, it consists of 69 peroxide of copper, 25.4 carbonic acid, and 5.4 water. It occurs in the copper mines of England, and of European countries generally, also in South America.

b. Green Carbonate of Copper, or Malachte, occurs massive, disseminated and crystallized in capillary and accular crystals. Its color is green, and the lustre of the fibrous varieties silky and pearly. It is soft and brittle, but admits of a beautiful polish, and is highly esteemed in inlayed work. It contains more oxygen and more water than the blue carbonate. It occurs along with the other ores of copper. The finest specimens are brought from Siberia.

5. Phosphate of Copper is a rare ore, which was formerly regarded as malaclute, but is now known to be a bi-phosphate of the peroxide of copper. It occurs massive, and disseminated in minute prismatic or octoedral crystals, of a green color. It is found in Hungary.

6. Muriate of Copper is another rare species, which occurs in angular grains, of a bright green color, among the sands of the river Lipas, in the desert of Atacama, separating Chile from Peru; also in minute pri-matic crystals, of an emeraldgreen color, on brown iron stone, at Remolmos, in Chile. It is soft and brittle. Specific gravity, 4.4. It tinges the flame of the blowpipe of a bright green and blue, muriatic acid fumes are evolved, and a bend of copper remains on the charcoat.

". A seniate of Copped: Copper, combined with a senic acid, forms several species, differing in the relative proportions, and in the quantity of water in them. Five are usually enumerated, which were dis-tinguished by Chenevix. One variety—the octocalral arseniate of copper-occurs crystallized in the form of an obtuse octoedron. Its usual color is sky-blue; sometimes apple or grass-green. It is translucent, shiming and brittle. Specific gravity, 2.881. It consists of peroxide of copper 49, arsenic acid 14, and not less than 35 of water. A second, copper mica, or the rhomboidal arseniate of copper of Phillips, is crystallized in hexacdral tables, bevelled on the terminal planes. Its color is deep emerald-green, with considerable lustre and transparency. It is less herd and less heavy than the foregoing species, and consists of 58 of oxide of copper, 21 of



arsenic acid, and 21 of water. A third, the right prismatic arseniate of copper, as it is termed by Phillips, is crystallized in tals being sometimes capillary, in some specimens appearing as delicate fibres, and sometimes in layers, flat or mammillated, and of a fibrous texture. The color in these is dark olive-green, passing into brown or yellow, or greenish-white. It is often transparent; it is harder than the It consists of 50 parts of oxide of copper, from 30 to 40 of arsenic acid, with, in some varieties, 20 of water. Another spegenerally extremely small: they are of a beautiful bluish-green color, but, from decomposition, often black; when unaltered, they are transparent. It consists of 54 oxide of copper, 30 arsenic acid, and 16 water. All the foregoing species are found along with other copper ores in the Enggheli mines.

The sulphurets are the ores from which copper is usually extracted. The ore is roasted by a low heat, in a furnace with which flues are connected, in which the sulphur that is volatilized is collected. The remaining ore is then smelted in contact with the fuel. The iron present in the ore, not being so casily reduced or fused as the copper, remains in the scoria, while the copper is runfout. It often requires repeated fusions, and, even after these, it may be still alloyed with portions of metals which are not volatile, and are of easy fusion. Hence the copper of commerce is never altogether pure, but generally contains a little lead, and a smaller portion of antimony. The carbonates of copper reduced by fusion, in contact with the fuel, afford a purer copper, as does also the solution of sulphate of copper which is met with in some immes, the copper being precipitated in its metallie state, by immersing iron in the solution. The precipitate which is thus formed is afterwards fused.—Copper, being ductile and easily wrought, is applied to many useful purposes. It is formed into thm sheets by being heated in a furnace, and subjected to pressure between iron rollers. These sheets being both ductile and durable, are applied to a variety of uses, such as the sheathing of the bottoms of ships, the covering of roofs and domes, the constructing of boilers and stills of a large size, &c. Copper is also fabricated mto a variety of household utensils, the

use of which, however, for preparing or preserving articles of food, is by no means

T. free from danger, on account of the oxidizement to which copper is liable. It has been attempted to obviate this danger the form of an acute octoodron, the crys- by tinning the copper, as above described. This method answers the purpose as long as the coating of tin remains entire. · Copper may be forged into any shape, but will not bear more than a red heat, and, of course, requires to be heated often. The bottoms of large boilers are frequently forged with a large hammer worked by preceding species, and is much heavier. . machinery. The bolts of copper used for ships, and other purposes, are either made by the hammer, or cast into shapes, and The copper cylinders used in rolled. cies occurs crystallized in triedral prisms, scalico printing are either cast solid upon an iron axis, or are cast hollow, and fitted, upon the axis. The whole is afterwards turned, to render the surface true.

Copperas, or Green Vitrioi, is a mincral substance, formed by the decomposition of pyrites by the moisture of the atmosphere. Its color is bright green, and its taste very astringent. A solution of it in water, dropped on oak bark, instantly produces a black spot. Copperas is occasionally found in grottoes, caverns, the gallenes of mines, and other places. It is m much request with dyers, tanners, and the manufacturers of mk, and, for their use, is artificially prepared from pyrites. mineral being moistened and exposed to the air, a crust is formed upon it, which is afterwards dissolved in water: from this the crystals of vitriol are obtained by evaporation. The principal use of vitriol is in dyeing woollen articles, hats, &c. black. It is the basis of mk, and is used in the manufacture of Prussian blue. If it be reduced to powder by the action of fire in a crucible, and mixed with powder of galls, it forms a dry, portable ink. Copperplates. (See Engraving.)

Copr., a name given to the natives of Egypt belonging to the Jacobite or Monophysite sect, is a term of Arabic formation, manifestly a corruption of the Greek word Air 17-195, converted, by the Arabs, into Kubti, or Kibti, pronounced Gubti, or Gybti, by the Egyptians. The Jacobites, who were exclusively of pure Egyptian blood, and far more numerous than their adversaries, the Melkites (Greeks in faith as well as origin), having been persecuted as heretics by the Greek emperor, were willing to submit to the arms of Amru-Ibn eland, the Arabian commander, who granted to them immunities which they had not previously possessed, and protected their church from the encroachments of the Constantinopolitan see. But the Copts soon found that their privileges would be

of little avail under oppressive or fanatical princes. Their wealth, numbers and respectability rapidly declined; and, though rarely intermarrying with their conquerors, and preserving their features, manners and religion unaltered, they soon lost their language, which had resisted the influence of a Grecian court for so many Their alphabetical characters, which, with a very few exceptions, were borrowed from the Greek, and probably. first introduced towards the latter end of eculation, they do not now amount to more the 3d century, had contributed to preserve their language in its original form, while a desire of instructing the people had led the monks to compose many reli- chiefly employed as agricultural laborers, gious works in their vernacular tongue; but the poverty and ignorance, which soon sprung up from the oppression under which they labored, could not fail to cut them off from the use of such instructers, and accustom them to neglect a language which served only as an invidious distinction. In the lower, or northern provinces, it appears to have been little, if at all, spoken, as early as the 10th century, though used and studied, as a learned language, as late as the 15th century. Inthe Said, or I pper Egypt, which was less exposed to foreign influence, it prevailed much longer, and the peculiar dialect of that country was generally spoken by the people in the beginning of the 16th century. Vansleb, who was there in the latter part of the 17th century, saw the last of the Copts to whom this language could be said to be vernacular. It is an original tongue, having no distinct affinity with any other, though many Greek words have been introduced, unaltered, by Christian writers, and several terms appear to have been anciently borrowed from the Hebrew. The Coptic version of the New Testament is valuable on account of its antiquity, dating, according to several critics, as early as the 2d century, and not later than the 5th, at the lowest computa-As a rehe of the ancient Egyptian, tion. also, the Coptic language is deserving of attention; and the light which a study of the fragments written in it will throw on the history and annquities of ancient Egypt has been clearly shown in the works of M. Quatremere and M. Champollion. In person and features, the Copts differ much from the other natives of Egypt, and are evidently a distinct racean intermediate link in the chain which connects the Negro with the fairer tribes . Thebac, Memphitic and Heplanomic. to the north and south of the tropics, strongly resembling the Abyssmians, who, though extremely dark, are much paler

than the genuine Negroes. Dark eyes. aquiline noses and curled hair are the usual characteristics of both nations; and the mummies which have been examined show the resemblance of the modern Copts to their ancestors. (Blumenbach, in Comment. Reg. Soc. Göttingen, xiv, 38.) Reduced, by a long series of oppression and misrule, to a state of degradation, their number and national character have rapidly declined; so that, at the highest calthan between 400,000 and 500,000 souls: according to another account, their number does not exceed 80,000. They are Many, in the larger cities, are engaged in manufactures and commerce, and most of the various kinds of business requiring much skill. In their hands, moreover, is the whole business of imposing and col-lecting the taxes. This they have managed ever since the Arabs made the conquest of Egypt. The Turks are generally ignorant, and little disposed to business. The beys and maniclukes, being taken from the class of slaves, cannot even read; and thus the care of the finances falls, almost necessarily, into the hands of the Copts, who make a mysterious science of their administration, which none can un-derstand but themselves. They are quiet, industribus and saturnine, but are often represented, by trayellers, as crafty, fraudulent and revengeful. All, however, allow that they show a capacity and disposition, which, under more favorable circumstances, would raise them to a respectable rank in the scale of civilized nations. The Coptic, or which the English Orientalise Worde has published a grammar and dictionary, has become a jiead language. In modern times, however, it has been made pretty evident that the dialect of the modern Copts has much resemblance to that of their ancestors; and it has served as a key to the latter, as well as to the long hidden meaning of the hicroglyphics. The celebrated Champollion (q. v.) is said to be publishing a new grammar of the Coptic, which, within a short time, has become a highly important language. It is said that he expects to prove that Coptic is the language used in the ancient, hieroglyphics. This indefatigable savant has also composed a Coptico-Egyptian dictionary, in three quarto volumes, comprising the three distinct dialects, viz.: the

Copy comes from the Latin copia, abundance, because copying a thing is multiplying it. A copyist ought always to un

derstand his original, whether this be a manuscript or a work of art, to avoid the numerous blunders which he will otherwise make in most cases in which copying is required. In ancient times, when the art of writing was less improved than it is at present, and, at the same time, the art of printing was not in existence in Europe, good copyists were much esteemed. With the Romans, they were slaves, and commanded very high prices. In the middle ages, when learning had fled from departments of government. In Mr. the world into the convents, the monks were busily engaged in copying the manuscripts of the ancient classics, and others of,a later date; but very often they did not understand what they wrote, or did their work carelessly, because copying was often imposed upon them as a penance; so that great labor has been subsequently spent in correcting the errors of the manuscripts of the middle ages. At the time when copying was the only means of multiplying books, their price was, of course, very great; and this was the case even with common books, as the breviary. In the fine arts, much more talent is necessary to produce an exact copy of a masterpiece than is at first supposed. Without a reproduction of the original, in the mind of the copyist, his imitation cannot be perfect. He must have the power to conceive, and transfer to his own canvass, the hving spirit of the piece before What an immense difference there is between the copy of an artist of genus and the literal exactness of a Chinese! This consideration leads us a step further, to the misconception of the character of painting and sculpture, which would confine the artist to a strict imitation of particular objects in nature. If this were the great aim of the arts, any view of a market would be better than a Teniers, and any landscape superior to a painting of Claude Lorraine. It is true that a cat so painted as to be hardly distinguishable from the living animal, or a drop of water which we try to wipe away, call forth our praise of the artist's skill; but they are only stud-It is the life which breathes throughout nature, and (in the higher branches of the time arts) the ideals at which nature herself auns, which the artist must be able to conceive and to exhibit. with the above arts as with the drama. A drama would be an extremely dull, poor, and perhaps vulgar production, if all we could say of it were, that it is an exact copy of certain particular occurrences. As copies of the great works of art may convey, to a considerable degree, the same

pleasure as the originals, it were to be wished that great sculptors would copy their own works, as Thorwaldsen did his beautiful Triumph of Alexander. copy is on a reduced scale, and in terra cotta.

COPYING MACHINES. The most convenient mode of multiplying copies of a writing is by lithography, and this mode is much used by merchants and others in preparing circulars; also in the different Hawkins's polygraph, two or more pens are so connected as to execute, at once, two or more copies. Mr. Watt's copying machine is a press, in which moistened bibulous paper is forced into close contact with freshly written manuscript. The writing is, of course, reversed, but, the paper being thin, the characters can be read on the opposite side. Doctor Franklin used to cover writing, while moist, with fine powdered emery, and pass the sheet through a press in contact with a plate of pewter or copper, which thus became sufficiently marked to yield impressions, as in the commonmode of copperplate printing.

Copyright denotes the property which an author has in his literary works, or which any other person has acquired by purchase, and which consists of an exclusive right of publication. In some countries, in Europe, this right is perpetual; m others, as in England, France and the U. States, it is for a limited period. In England, the first legislative proceeding on the subject was the licensing act of 1662, which prohibited the publication of any book unless licensed by the lord chamberlain, and entered in the register of the stationers' company, in which was entered the title of every new book, the name of the proprietor, &c. This and some subsequent acts being repealed in 1691, the owner of a copyright was left to the protection of the common law, by which he could only recover to the extent of the damage proved, in case of its infringement. New applications were therefore made to parliament, and, in 1709, a statute was passed (8 Anne, 19), by which the owner of a copyright was required to deliver a copy of his book to each of nine public libraries, and severe penaltics were provided for guarding the property of copyright against intruders for 14 years, and no longer. The delivery of nine copies is often a heavy tax and was, for some time, evaded by publishers; but, in 1811, the university of Cambridge brought an action to enforce the delivery, and obtained a verdict; and, in 1814, an set was

passed confirming this claim on the part foreign country, may be published in of the libraries. Norwithstanding the stat-ture of Anne, it was, for some time, the There is a disposition in France to enthors had a permanent, exclusive copyright, at common law; and, in fact, it was decided, in 17(3), by the court of king's bench, in the celebrated case of Millar vs. Taylor (4 Burr. 2303), that an author had a common law right in perpetuity, independent of the statute, to the exclusive printing and publishing of his original The court were not unancompositions. amous in this case. Lord Mansfield and 'wo other judges were in favor of the permanency of copyright, in which they were confirmed by judge Blackstone: the fourth judge, Yates, maintained that the words of the statute were a lumitation. subsequent decision of the house of lords (1774) settled the question against the king's bench, by establishing that the common law right of action, if any existed, could not be exercised beyond the time innited by the statute of Anne; and that the exclusive right should last only 14 years, with a contingent icnewal for an equal term, if the author happened to be alive at the end of the first period. law continued on this footing till 1814. when the right was extended to 28 years, by rendering the last 14 years certain, instend of leaving them contingent; and, if the author were living at the end of that period, to the residue of his life. In the F. States, the jurisdiction of this subject is vested in the federal government, by the constitution (art. 1, sec. 8), which declares that congress shall have power "to promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries. By the acts of congress of May 31, 1790 (ch. 15), and April 29, 1802 (ch. 36), the authors of maps, charts, books, engravings, etchings, &c., being citizens of the U. States, or resident therem, are entitled to the exclusive right of publishing for 14 years, and, if the author be living at the end of that period, for an additional term of 14 years. The English law does not distinguish between resident and non-resident aliens, like the American law. In France, the . law of copyright is founded on the law of 1793, which gave to authors a right in their works for life, and to their heirs for 10 years after their deaths. The decree of 1810 gave the right to the author for life, and to his wife, if she should survive him, for her life, and to their children for 20 years. A work, already published in a

prevailing opinion, in England, that au- large the term of copyright; and propositions have been made, within a few years, to extend it to the legal representatives of the author for 50 years after his death. In Germany, the laws respecting copyright vary in the different countries; but, in general, there is no fixed time. copyright is almost always given for the liferime of the author. But the diet of the Gérmanic confederation has not, as yet, succeeded in agreeing upon a general law, and an author's works may be printed in any of the states in which he has not taken out a copyright. Austria is famous for piratical, incorrect, cheap editions; the government seeming to calculate according to the old maxim of political econ omy—if the book is purated there, the cost of it does not go out of the country. There is one check, however, against pirated editions, viz., the Leipsic book-fair (q. v.), where the German booksellers meet to settle their mutual accounts, and where no member of the community would like to appear in the character of a piratical-A copyright may exist in a publisher. translation, or in part of a work (as in notes or additional matter), with an exchisive right to the whole; but a bona fide abridgment of a book is not considered, m England and the U. States, a violation of the original copyright. So a person may use fair quoration, if, by its application, he makes it a part of his own work; but cannot take the whole, or a large part of a work, under the pretence of quotation. If an encyclopædia or review copies so much of a book as to serve as a substitute for it, it becomes habk to an action for a violation of property. An encyclopædia must not be allowed, by its transcripts, tosweep up all modern works. In Germany, abridgments are not protected as they are by the laws of England and the U. States, which tend greatly to the prejudico or the authors of original works, who are hable to have the most valuable fruits of then tods given to the public in the shape best titted to command a rapid sale, for the benefit of others, while the original works are comparatively excluded from the market. Washington Irving, it is well known, was compelled to prepare an abridgment himself of his Life of Columbus, for his own protection. The time for which a copyright is allowed, in the U. States, is very short. It would seem but just to allow a man the exclusive property in his own book during his life, and even

A A Comment of the state of the said to extend the same, for a given period to his heirs, in certain cases; for the most valuable books are, in many cases, those which have the slowest sale. For a novel, which is forgotten within six months from its appearance, the term of copyright may to sufficiently long; but for a standard work in history or science, it is often unuch too short. While on the subject of the protection afforded to literary productions originating in the U. States, we may be permitted to remark on the expediency of removing all obstacles in the way of the introduction of the literature of other countries. With the exception of Amer-· ican books printed abroad, there seems to be no good reason for subjecting imported books to the payment of duties. In a government, the foundation of which is the intelligence of the people, it does not seem advisable to throw this obstacle in the way of intellectual improvement, for the cake of the very small accession of revenue thereby gained. The sums which have been paid for copyrights have varied with the nature of the work, the reputation of the author, and the liberality of the publisher. An original work, the author. of which is unknown, and the success of which must depend on the taste and talents of the writer, and the taste and wants of the age, will stand little chance; while a book, suited to the market, for which • the publisher can calculate the demand, may command a liberal price. A compi-· lation or a dictionary may succeed, where the poems of a Milton, the philosophy of 'a Hume, or the histories of a Robertson could find no encouragement. Châteaubriand received for his complete works, from the bookseller L'Avocat, half a million of francs. Moore has a life annuity of £500 for his Irish Melodies. Sir Walter Scott received, in 1815, for his 3 last poems, 3000 guineus apiece. Campbell received for his Pleasures of Hope, after it had been published 15 years, 1000 guintas; for his Gertrude, after having been published 6 years, 1500 guiness. Byfon received for the fourth canto of Childe Harold, £2100. Cowper's poems, in 1815, though the copyright had only 2 years torun, were sold for 8000 guineas. Cotta, a German bookseller, is said to have given Gothe; for his complete works, 30,000 In England, large sums are paid for books which promise a rapid sale? the same is true, in a less degree, of France and the U. States. Germany and Italy rentunerate authors very poorly, only a few instances, such as Gothe, excepted. In Spain, the book-trade has been so VOL. III.

crudied by a mercilest constitute that an experience of the country, on his own secount. For a long time after the art of printing was invested, no remuneration was paid to authors.

Coourry; an undue munifestation, on the part of a woman, of a desire to attract. admirers. The wish of woman to please: gives rise to much that is amiable in the female character, and delightful in the intercourse of good society, and is hism-able only when it is carried so far as to oversten delicacy. Its degrees are very different, and, in a French woman particularly, it is often united with much that is graceful and amiable. That which is nurtured by the system of the English boarding-schools has fewer redeeming qualities. It received its name in France. We learn from madame Scudery's Histoire de Co-. quetterie, which is to be found in the 21 volume of her Nouvelles Conversations, that this word was first introduced into the French language in the time of Catherine,". de Medici.

Edquimbo, or Serena; a jurisdiction in Chile. The fertility and heauty of the country have induced many families to reside here. The country produces corn enough to supply annually 4 or 5 vessels, of 400 tons each, for Lima. There are many mines of gold and silver.

Coquimbo; capital of a jurisdiction in Chile, the second town founded by Valdivia, about a quarter of a league from the sea, on a river of the same name; 10 miles S. W. of Rioja; lon. 71° 19′ W.; lat. 21° 55′ S. The population consists of Spaniards and people of color, with some Indians. The harbor is accounted one of the best on the west coast of South America, and is much frequented. The streets are built in a line from north to south, and east to west; well watered, and shaded with fig-trees, palms, oranges, olives, &c., always green. The number of houses is between 3 and 400.

Coralium, Lat.; sopalian, Gr.), in gem sculpture; a marine zoophyte that becomes, after removal from the water, as hard as a stone, of a fine red color, and will take a good polish. Coral is much used by gem sculptors for small ornaments, but is not so susceptible of receiving the finer execution of a gem as the hard and precious stones. Caylus has published an antique head of Medusa, sculptured in coral, of which the eyes are composed of a white substance resembling shells, incrusted or-let in. He supposes it to have been an amulet, because the ancients, who were partial to a mystical anal-

ogy, between the substance and the subject of, in his prelace to a translation of High represented (see Allegory), supposed, as Persous, after having cut off the head of .. "Medusa, concealed it under some plants of coral, which instantly became petrified; and tinged with the color of the blood which flowed from it, and from a green turned to a red color. Pliny and other ancient authors attribute many superstitious qualities to the coral; therefore it is no wonder that it was often taken for an · amulet. Pliny also relates that the Gauls. and the people inhabiting the maritime parts of Italy, as well as other nations on the sea-coast, used it to form ornaments for their armor and household furniture.

CORAN. (See Koran.)

Coray, Adamantios; a learned physician and scholar, born at Scio, or Chios, M 1748. After having studied the uncient and modern languages, and translated, while a boy, a German catechism into Greek, he went, in 1782, to Montpellier, to finish his education, where he studied medicine and natural history, and received the degree of doctor. In 1788, he settled in Paris. Since he has been naturalized in France, he has greatly contributed, by his learned works, to give a favorable opinion of the progress of improvement among the modern Greeks. He has always retained a great attachment to his native country; and we owe to him several excellent accounts of the intellectual progress of his countrymen. During the youth of Coray, a fondness for learning was revived among the modern Greeks by some ecclesiastics, who translated valuable books of instruction, principally from the German, and made them their text-books in their schools upon mount Athos. wealth of several Greek commercial houses made them feel the want of skilful bookkeepers and clerks, and they were desirous of taking them from among their own countrymen. Moreover, the Russian armies had destroyed the illusion of the invincible power of the sublime Porte, and the Greeks, being protected in their property by the influence of the Russian consuls, became active and industrious, and the knowledge which they gained by commerce with other nations helped to cradicate the superstitions and prejudices which had grown up in the long tlarkness of Turkish despotism. Coray has referred to these favorable circumstances which attended the time of his education, in his Mémoire sur l'État actuel de la Civilisation dans la Grèce lu a la Société des Observateurs de l'Homme, in 1803; and has offer-

pocrates upon Climate, Water and Local, Orid relates in his Metamorphoses, that ity, an apology for his nation. This, to. ical Memorabilia, in the Hellenic Library, in which he gives a history of the modern Greek language, belongs to the pieces call-ed forth by the exaggerated praise and censure which his views have received. The improvement which Coray has given to the modern Greek language has by no means been universally acknowledged." He has chosen a style borrowed from every century, and deviating much from the style of the people, and the language of the patriarchs and Byzantines of latter times. H. Codrika, professor of Greek grammar and modern literature at a lyceum in Paris, has attacked him violently in several publications, asserting that his style is artificial, and has but little effect upon his nation. . The imitators of hisstyle are called Coraists. The critical editions which Coray has published of the ancient authors cannot be entirely trusted, for he often makes very bold alterations. They are, however, very useful for his own countrymen. They have been pubhshed in Paris since 1806, under the general title of Hellenic Library, embracing chiefly Ælian's various histories, Polyænus, Æsop, Isocrates, Plutarch's Lives, Strabb, Aristotle's Politics, &c. This ven-: erable old man lives in Paris, devoted to. literary tabors, and has never answered the writings directed against him, satisfied with the respect that is continually paid him by many of his countrymen. A marble statue of him, executed by Ganova, stands in the lecture-room at Chies. His old age has prevented him from joining in the struggle of his nation against their op-pressors. The warmth and sincerity of his good wishes in their cause may be seen from his excellent introduction to Aristotle, which has been translated into German.

CORBAN (from the Hebrew karab, to approach). In the Scriptures, this word signifies an offering to the Lord. / Jesus is represented as using this word in Mark

Corbière, James Joseph William Peter, one of the most active and obnoxious members of the Villele ministry, born in the department Ille-et-Vilaine, was, in 1815, member of the chambre introuvable. (q. v.) He was the reporter of the law of annuesty (so called) of Jan. 12, 1816, and of the law of divorce. He was much opposed to the ministry of Decaze, and has at times assumed some liberality of

violent royalist. In 1820, Corbière was appointed chef de l'instruction publique, and, Dec. 14, 1820, minister of the interior, was afterwards made a count, and loaded with orders, &c. As soon as he was installed, he put in execution the great system of purification (système d'epuration), mercilessly discharging every officer, from the maire to the lowest clerk, who did not entirely coincide with him in political sentiment, or ventured to show character and independence. Teachers were dismissed from the colleges on the ground of not being sufficiently religious. M. Corbière declared that all schools ought to receive a more religious character: the écoles Chretiennes were augmented, and those of mutual instruction were attacked by the ministerial papers. Corbière, who always had defended the liberty of the press before he became a minister, now subjected it to the most revolting censorship. He, who had once supported the law of Feh. 5, pour rétablir les électeurs dans tous leurs droits, et de leur éviter les supercherles ministérielles, now actively aided his colleagues, Villèle and Peyronnet, in rendering the elections subservient to ministerial influence. To complete his glory, after the dismission of so many eminent men, Corbière countersighed the ordinance dissolving the national guards. He fell with the Villèle ministry in 1820.

CORDAY D'ARMANS, Marie Anne Charlotte, the murderer of Marat, was born at Saint Saturnin, near Seez, in Normandy, in the year 1768. With the charms of her sex she united a rare courage. lover, an officer in the garrison at Caen, was accused by Marat as a conspirator against the republic, and assassmated by villains hired for that purpose. cited Charlotte Corday to revenge. tory had inspired her with a deep-rooted batred against all oppressors, and she de-"termined to free her country from Marat, whom she considered as the head of those monsters called buveurs de sang (the drinkers of blood). Another motive confirmed ther purpose. Many deputies, such as Barbaroux, Louvet, Gaudet, and others, who were persecuted by Marat, and afterwards proscribed, May 31, 1793, to whose opin-ions she had attached herself, invoked the , assistance of Frenchmen in behalf of-liberty, now expiring beneath the horrors of the times. Charlotte then left home, entered Paris July 12, 1793, and went twice to Marat's house, but was not admitted. I have incurred some small debts during

OURBIERE CORDAY D'ARMANS.

of fesisting the mini follows: "Chizzen, I have just new come tone, with a view of resisting the mini-follows: "Chizen, I have just new come inters; but, substantially, he has ever been from Caen. Your love for your country no doubt makes you desirous of being informed of the unhappy transactions in that part of the republic. Grant me an interview for a moment. I have impor-tant discoveries to make to you." The following day came, and, with a dagger in her bosom, she proceeded to the house of Marat, who, just on the point of coming. out of his bath, immediately gave orders that she should be admitted. The assemthat she should be admitted. blies at Calvados were the first subjects of conversation, and Marat heard with eagerness the names of those who were present at them. "All these," he ex-claimed, "shall be guillotined." At these words, Charlotte plunged her dagger into his bosom, and he immediately expired. with the words, "To me, my friend?" Meanwhile the maid remained calm and tranquil as the priestess before the altar, in the midst of the tumult and confusion. She was afterwards conducted as a prisoner to the Abbaye. A young man, who begged to die in her place, was also condemned to death. Her first care was to implore the forgiveness of her father for disposing of her life without his knowledge. She then wrote to Barbaroux as follows: "Tomorrow, at 5 'clock, my trial begins, and on the same day I hope to meet with Brutus and the other patriots in elysium." She appeared before the revolutionary tribunal with a dignified air, and her replies were firm and noble. She spoke of her deed as a duty which she owed her coun-Her defender (Chaveau-Lagarde), full of astonishment at such courage, cried out, "You hear the accused herself! She confesses her crime; she admits that she has coolly reflected upon it; she conceals no circumstance of it; and she wishes for no defence. This unshaken calmness, this total abandonment of herself, these appearances of the utmost internal tranquillity, are not natural! Such appearances are to be explained only by political fanaticism, which armed her hand with the dagger. To you then, gentlemen of the jury, it belongs to judge of what weight this moral view may be in the scale of justice!" His words could make no impression on the minds of the judges. After her condemnation, she thanked her defender with these words: "I would willingly give you some token of the esteem , with which you have inspired me. These gentlemen, however, have just informed me that my property is forfeited; but On the same evening, she wrote to him as my imprisonment, and I hereby gransfer

the offigation to you." She was conduct. It is built on the gentle declivity of a chain ed to the scaffold in a red mantle, and passed, with a smiling countenance, through the crowd by whom she was pursued with shouts of execuation. 'retained her presence of mind to the last. A voice from the multitude exclaimed, "She is greater than Brutus!" It was Adam Lux, a deputy from the city of Mentz, who, fired with admiration, wrote to the tribunal, requesting to die sents many similar instances of individuduty operating on an excited imagination, to attempt the lives of important men. Sand, the murderer of Kotzebue, Louvel, who killed the duke de Betti, Staps, who attempted the life of Napoleon, and Lohning, a German student who attempted to destroy a pohtical leader in Nassau, were all actuated by this motive, which has been, in late times, much oftener the occasion of such attempts than the desire of per-

sonal vengeance.
Cordellers. This word originally signified an order of Franciscan manks: secondly, a society of Jacobins, from 1792 to 1794, were so called from their place of meeting. These were distinguished by the violence of their speeches and conduct. In this club of the Cordehers Marat and André soon began to raise their voices. The talents of Danton also procured it some reputation; and Camille-Desinoulies published a journal under the name of The Old Cordeliers, in which he at last took the field against the ultrarevolutionists, and endeavored to unmask the notorious Hébert and his associates. But when he was afterwards impresoned and executed, with Dauton, the society sunk, and, even before the abolition of the Jacobin clubs, fell into total oblivion.

Cordilleras. (See Andes and Mexico.) Connon in a military serse; troops so disposed as to preserve an uninterrupted bne of communication, to protect a country either from hostile invasion or from contagious diseases. In the first case, it new system of the military art, because a line which is far extended can be easily broken through by an enemy, and is not , capable of an obstinate resistance.

Corpova, on the Guadalquivir; an an-

of mountains, forms an oblong quadrangle, and is surrounded with walls and lofty towers. A part of the town is of Roman, a part of Moorish origin; many of the buildings are in ruins, and a number of gardens occupy a great part of the inhabited space. The streets are narrow, crooked and dirty; the plaza mayor, the principal market-place, however, is distinguished for its size, its regularity, and like Charlotte Corday. She was guillo- the beauty of the colonnade by which it tined July 17, 1793.—Modern history pre- is surrounded. The remains of the residence of the Moorish kings now form a als who have been driven, by a sense of part of the archbishop's palace. The cathedral is a splendid building, originally a mosque, erected in the 7th century, by king Abderahman, strikingly ornamented with rows of cupolas, partly octagonal and partly round, which are supported by 850 pillars of jasper and marble, forming 19 colonnades. The bridge over the river rests on 16 arches. Cordova has always carried on considerable trade; and, even under the Moors, the leather exclusively manufactured there (cordovan) was exported in all directions. At what period the Romans laid the foundation of the town (Colonia Patricia, afterwards Corduba) is not known. In 572, it was conquered by the Goths, and, in 692, by the Moorish chief Abderahman, who afterwards renounced his allegiance to the caliph of Damasens, and made Cordova his royal residence.—The province of Cordova (3940 square miles, with 259,000 inhabitants) includes the fertile and beautiful valley of the Guadalquivir and the mountains of Sierra Morena, a part of which are constantly covered with snow.

Corpova; a province of Buenos Ayres, about 100 leagues in length and 70 in breadth, crossed by several chains of mountains, and watered by several rivers. The principal town is called by the same name, besides which there are some towns and villages. The inhabitants feed a great number of cattle and horses, which form their principal trade. Serpents are numerous: some of them are of an amazing size, and exceedingly dangerous; others answers its purpose badly, according to the are harmless. This province is but little known.

Corpova; a town of Buenos Ayres, and capital of the province of Tucuman, founded in 1550, by Nunez Prado, and, about 20 years after, erected into a bighcient and celebrated town in Lower Andalous and college of the same 'N.N. W. Brenos Ayres; lon. 65° 10′ W.; name, which was formerly a small Moorlate 31° 20′ S.; population, according to ish kingdom. It contains about 35,000 Mr. Bland, about 10,000. It contains inhabitants, and lies in 37° 52′ 13″ N. lat. about 1500 Spanish inhabitants, with Jesuits is a large edifice, now appropriated to public purposes. The adjacent country is fruitful, abounding in excellent

Corpova, José M., accompanied the liberating army sent to Peru by Cohombia, and commanded a division at the battle of Ayacucho (q. v.) He was known as a meritorious officer during the whole period of the contest, after the year 1819 until its conclusion, but was previously distinguished at Ayacucho particularly distinguished at Ayacucho, where his gallantry greatly contributed to the success of the patriots. Dismounting, and standing in front of his division, gencral Cordova ordered them to advance to the charge, with the emphatic exhortation, "Adelante, paso de vencedores." Although the Spaniards prepared to receive his attack with a show of confidence, they could not withstand the onset: General Cordova received much praise for his conduct on this occasion, and was promoted on the field to the rank of general of division, at the age of 25 years. As general in chief, he remained with the auxiliary Colombian army in Bolivia. He continued in Upper Peru until 1827, when he returned to Colombia. In the changes which took place in the government of Colombia, in 1828, general Cordova took the part of Bolivar, and, in Sept., was made secretary of the department of war, and a member of the council of ministers. In Sept., 1829, after Bolivar had received ' almost unlimited power (see Colombia), Cordova set up the standard of revolt in Antioquia, but did not receive much sup-He was attacked, Nov. 17, by general-O'Leary, and slain, with almost all his adherents, 200 in number, after a desperate defence.

which Corpovan; a fine leather, took its name from the city of Cordova, . where it was manufactured in large quantities. Much is now made in the Barbary

Corea; a kingdom of Asia, bounded N. by Chinese Tartary, E. by the sea of . Japan, S. by a narrow sea, which parts it from the Japanese islands, and W. by the Yellow sea, which parts it from China; about 500 miles from N. to S., and 150 from E. to W.; between lat. 34° 16' and 43° N., and lon. 1248 32' and 130° 30' E. It is a peninsula, pening every mands the dant. Some parts are mountained by the sea, except towards the dant. Some parts are mountained. Salt periods of the riches. The cap-It is a peninsula, being every where surhices, in which are found 40 grand cities, forms a great part of its riches. The cap-

about 4000 Negroes. It has a handsome called kinn; 33 of the first rank, called cathedral and a specious market-place, fou; 58 theous, or cities of the second rank; The college formerly belonging to the rand 70 of the third, called hien; besides a great number of fortresses well garrisoned. The north part of Corea is barren, woody and mountainous, infested with wild beasts, and but thinly inhabited; but the southern division is rich and fertile, breeds great numbers of large and small cattle, besides fowl, wild and tame, and a great variety of game; it likewise produces silk, flax and cotton. The king of Corea pays an annual tribute to China, but in the interior administration is independent. The prevailing religion is that of Fo or Buddha. Population vaguely estimated at 6 or 8,000,000; square miles, about 88,000. Kingki-tao is the capital. Buddha.

Corelli, Arcangelo, a celebrated performer on the violin, was born at Fusig nano, in the territory of Bologna, in the year 1653, and was instructed in church music by Matteo Simonelli, a singer at 1 St. Peter's in Rome, and in profine music by Bassano of Bologna. In the year 1706, he travelled into Germany, and was in the service of the elector of Bavaria during five years, after which he returned into his own country. He performed on the violin with great judgment and an incredible degree of accuracy. His execution was peculiarly characteristic, full of spirit and expression, and his tone was firm and uniform. Cardmal Ottoboni was his patron at Rome. Corelli formed and conducted, according to the original plan of Crescentini, the celebrated musical academy which met at the palace of the cardinal every Monday. By his sonatas on the violin, and by his concerts, he . may be considered, as it were, the creator of a new species of harmony, especially for his own instrument. He died in 1713, and, besides a considerable fortune, left behind him a valuable collection of paintings, which became the property of cardinal Ottoboni. He was buried in the Panthcon.

Corru (anciently Drepanum, then Scheria, and at last, Corcyra); an island in the Mediterranean, at the mouth of the Adriatic, near the coast of Albania; about 45 miles long, and from 15 to 20 wide; lon. 20° 20′ E.; lat. 39° 40′ N.; population, 60.000; square miles, 229. The climate is mild, but variable, the air healthy, the land fertile, and the fruit excellent. anges, citrons, the most delicious grapes, honey, wax and oil are exceedingly abun-

45\*

ital, has always borne the name of the island. Towards the end of the 14th French, and coded to them by the treaty of Campo-Formio, in 1797. In Murch, 1799, it was taken from them by the Russians and Turks, and united with Cephathe Morea with Livadia, lat. 27° 53′ 37″ N., lonia, Zante, &c., to form a republic, under lon. 22° 24′. 5″ E., the inhabitants of the denomination of the Seven Islands. which, some years ago, amounted to she lonian Islands.) Homer, in the Odysabeth 1800 control to the long during the lange during the lange. (See lonian Islands.) Homer, in the Odyssey, describes the beauty of this island of the Phreacians, celebrating the climate and the gardens of Alcinous.

Corru (anciently Corcyra); capital of the island of the same name; lon. 20° 17' E.; lat. 39° 40' N.; population, 15,000; the see of an archbishop. It is the scat of government of the Ionian Islands, is fortified, and defended by 2 fortresses; and has a good harbor and considerable trade. In 1818, a university was established here, under the auspices of the British government, by the earl of Guilford, who was appointed chancellor, and nominated Greeks of the first abilities to the different chars. The number of stu-dents soon amounted to 150.

Coriander (coriandrum satirum, Linn.); an annual plant, native of Italy, and caltivated in other parts of Europe. The seed has, when festi, a very unpleasant smell, like that of bed-bugs. It is, on the contrary, very agreeable and aromatic when dry. It acts in the same manner as anisced, &c., and enters into several officinal compounds. Its infusion is occasion- . ally employed as a sudorific. It is used. hkewise, as a corrective of certain purga-

Corilla. (See Improvisation.)

CORINNA; called the lyric muse; a poetess of Tanagra, in Borotia, contemporary with Pındar, whom she is said to have conquered five times in musical contests, and therefore her image, crowned with the chaplet of victory, was placed in the gymnasium of Tanagra. According to Pausanias, who relates this fact, she was so beautiful that her charms may have · influenced, in some degree, the opinion of the judges. It is probably owing to the tenderness and softness of her songs, that she received the surname of the fly. Sappho and Erinna were each called the bee. the numerous poems which the ancients 'ascribed to her, only a few fragments have come down to its. In Creuzer's Meletem. e Disc. antiquit., vol. 2, p. 10 et seq., Welher, and critically commented on them .-. Madante de Stael has given the name of

Coringa to the heroine of one of the most behutiful novels of our age; a work which century, it came into the power of the exhibits, perhaps, more than any of her Venetians. It was afterwards taken by the other productions, the extraordinary talents . . of this distinguished woman.

Corners, a celebrated city upon the isthmus of the same mane, which united retaken several times during the late revolution, and the editor found it, in 1821, with hardly any occupants except soldiers. The houses were mostly torn down; and of the 13 columns of the temple, mentioned by Dodwell and several travellers before him, he found but 8. Only a few ruins remain to attest the magnificence of the ancient city; but much might, undoubtedly, be obtained by excavation. Capitals and bass-reliefs are found. m great numbers, in the houses of the bey and other Turks formerly residing the latter, however, are put to the use of ordinary pieces of marble, having the figured side turned inwards. The northern hurbor, Locheon, on the gulf of Corinth, is choked with sand, as is likewise the eastern harbor, Cenchrea, on the Saronic gulf. Of the shallow harbor Schenes, on the north of the city, where was a quay in ancient times, there hardly remains a trace. All these harbors are now morasses, and corrupt the air of the city. The mosques and churches, and the palaces formerly belonging to Turks of high rank, are built partly out of the ruins of the ancient city. The Turks did nothing for the city or the harbors; they only paid a little attention to the Acrocorinthus. (q. v) Corinth derived, m ancient times, great advantages from its situation on the isthmus, between two bays, belonging to what may be called two different seas, if we consider the poor state of navigation . in ancient times; and a great exchange of Asiatic and Italian goods took place there. The 'duty paid on these goods afforded a great revenue to the state; and the citizens accumulated such wealth, that Corinth became one of the most magnificent, but, at the same time, most voluptuous cities of Greece. Venus was the goddess of the city, and courtesans were her priestesses, to whom recourse was often had, that they might unplore the protection of the goddess in tinks of public danger; and a certain number of new . ker has collected the accounts relating to apriestesses were consecrated to her at the v commencement of important enterprises Las (q. v.) and several other females of

the same profession were distinguished by their great accomplishments and beauty, and the high price which they set on their charms: hence the old proverb, Non cuivis hamini licet adire Corinthum. The virtuous women colebrated a feast to Venus apart from the others. The famous Sisyphus was the founder of Corinth. His family was succeeded by the Heraclides (who were dethroned after several. centuries), and the government intrusted to 200 citizens, called Bacchiades. Heegen thinks that they were, at least several of them, merchants. To this oligarchy followed a monarchical form of government, which was succeeded by a constitution approaching nearer to oligarchy than to democracy. In the sequel, Corinth be-. came the head of the Achsean league, and was conquered and destroyed by the consul Mummius, 146 B. C. Julius Ca-. sar, 24 years later, rebuilt it; but its commerce could not be restored: the productions of the East now took the road to : Rome. St. Paul lived here a year and a half. The Venetians received the place · from a Greek emperor; Mohammed II took it from them in 1458; the Venetians ' recovered it in 1687, and fortified the Acrocorinthus again; but the Turks took it anew in 1715, and retained it until the late revolution of the Greeks, during which it was the seat of the soi-disant Greek government. Against tany enemy invading the Morea from the north, Cormth is of the highest unlitary importance. It is described at some length in the editor's Journal of his stay in Greece, in 1822 (Leipsic, 1823). The situation of Gormth is one of the most charming that can be imagined, surrounded as it is by the beauties of nature and the charms of poetic and historical associations. The Acrocorinthus on its picturesque and beautiful cone, seems like an observatory for surveying the whole field of Grecian glory. The waters of two buys wash the olive groves, which border the city; and from every hill in it, you can survey the noble Helicon and Parnassus, or let your eye wander over the isthmus, where, in happier ages, the Isthmian games were celebrated, even to the mountains and shores of Megara and Attica. Nero began to dig a caml through the isthmus, but his successors were ashuned to complete a work which had been undertaken by such a monster, though it happened to be a good one. The luxury of ancient Corinth was greater than that of any other place in Greece. At the court of the Byzantine emperors, there were officers called Co-

rinthiarii, who were keepers of the ornaments and fusniture of the palace.—A certain mixture of various metals was called Corinthian brass, and was very dear. The story that it had its origin in the accidental melting together of different metals at the time of the conflagration of Corinth, when taken by Mummius, is a fable, the brass having been in use long before. (For further information on the political history of Corinth, see Timoleon.)

COBINTHIAN, with some of the earlier English writers, was used to signify a person of a loose, licentious character, in allusion to the voluptuous and corrupt state of society in ancient Corinth. (q. v.) It has very recently been applied to express a person in high life, and of fashionable manners. This usage is drawn from the Corinthian capital in architecture, which is distinguished for its elegance and ornament. The latter usage, particularly when it is applied to a lady, is rather offensive to the ear of one familiar with, the older application.

CORINTHIAN ORDER. See Architecture,

and Order.) Coriolanus; the name given to an ancient Roman, Caius Marcius, because the city of Corroli, the capital of the kingdom of the Volsci, was taken almost solely by his exertions. His valor in the victory over the Annates was rewarded by the consul Commus with a golden chain. Coriolanus, however, lost his popularity whon, during the famine which prevailed in Rome 491 B. C., he placed himself at the head of the patricians, in order to deprive the plebenans of their hard-earned privileges, and even made the proposition to distribute the provisions obtained from Sicily among them only on condition that they would agree that the tribuneship should be abolished. Enraged at this, the tribunes commanded him to be brought before them; and, when he did not appear, they endeavored to scize his person, and, failing in this attempt, condemned him to be thrown from the Tarpeian rock. But the patricians rescued him; and it was finally determined that his cause should be brought before the tribunal of the whole people. Coriolanus appeared, and made answer to the complaints alleged against him by the tribunes (who accused him of tyranny, and of endeavoring to introduce a regal government), by the simple narration of his exploits, and his services towards his country. He showed the scars on his breast, and the whole multitude were affected even to tears. But, notwithstanding all this, he was unable to repel

the soldiers, instead of delivering them to the questors, as the laws of Rome required; and the tribunes were enabled to procure his banishment. 'Coriolanus now resolved to revenge himself upon his country, and immediately went to the Volsci, the bitterest enemics of Rome, and prevailed upon them to go to war. with her before the expiration of the truce. He himself was joined with Attius in the command of their army, which inmediately made itself master of the cities of Latium. The Volscian camp was pitched in sight of Rome before troops could be raised for the defence of the city. The envoys sent by the senate returned with the answer, that Rome could purchase peace only by the surrender of the territory taken from the Volsci. A second embassy was of no more avail; and at length, the priests and augurs having returned equally unsuccessful, the terror of the inhabitants was extreme. Valeria, the sister of Valerius Publicula, exhorted the women to try the effect of their tears on the resolution of Cornolamus. She iramediately went to the house of Veturia, his mother, whom he highly honored, where she also found Volumma, his wife, and besought both to go with the other women to make a last experiment upon the heart of the conqueror. The senate approved of this resolution, and the Roman mations, Veturia and Volumma with her children taking the lead, went towards the camp of Coriolanus, who, recognising his moth- large burracks, &c. The Cork institution er, his wife and his children, ordered the heters to lower their fasces, and received in which lectures are delivered on chemthem with tender embraces. He then urged them to leave the treacherous city, and to come to him. During this time, his mother never ceased entreating him to grant his country an honorable peace, and assured him that he never should enter the gates of Rome without passing over her dead body. At length, yielding to her entreates, he raised her from the ground, and confessed that she had prevailed. He then withthrew his army from before Rome, and, as he was attempting to justify himself in an assembly of the Volsei, was assassinated in a tumult excited by Attius. The Roman senate caused a temple to be built to female fortune upon the place where Veturia had softened the anger of her son, and made her the first priestess.

Cork; a county of Ireland, formerly a kingdom, bounded N. by the county of Limerick, E. by the counties of Tipperary

the accusations against him, particularly and Waterford, S. S. E. and S. W. by the that of distributing the spoils of war among sea, and W. by the county of Kerry: 99 English nules in length and 71 in breadth. The land is generally good. The principal towns are Cork, Kinsale, Youghal, Mallow, Donneraile and Bandon-bridge. Population stated, in 1813, at 523,936; by census, in 1821, 702,000. It is now above 730,000.

> 'CORK; a city of Ireland, capital of the county of Cork, 162 miles S. W. Dublin; lon. 6° 28' 15" W.; lat. 51° 53' 54" N.; population, 100,658. It was originally built on an island formed by the river Lee, but is now greatly extended on the opposite banks of both branches of the river. It is 15 miles from the sea, and its harbor, or cove, 9 miles below the town,. is celebrated for its safety and capacious-Its entrance, deep and narrow, is defended by a strong fort on each side. Cork is the second city in Ireland, and exports great quantities of salt provisions; and during the slaughtering season. 100,000 head of cattle are prepared. The other exports are butter, candles, soap, whiskey, hides, pork, rabbit-skins, linen, woollens, yarn, &c. Its manufactures are sail-cloth, sheeting, paper, leather, glue, glass, coarse cloth, &c. The approaches to the town were formerly two large stone bridges, to which three others have been added. The public buildings are generally of a plain exterior. The principal ones are a stately cathedral, exchange, market-house, custom-house, town-house. 2 theatres, several hospitals and churches, is an incorporated scientific establishment, istry, agriculture and botany. The houses of the city are generally old and not elegant. It sends two members to parlia-

> Cork is the external bark of a species of oak (quercus suber) which grows in Spain, Portugal, and other southern parts of Europe, and is distinguished by the fungous texture of its bark, and the leaves being evergreen, oblong, somewhat oval, downy underneath, and waved. principal supply of cork is obtained from Catalonia in Spain. In the collecting of cork, it is customary to slit it with a knife at certain distances, in a perpendicular direction from the top of the trees to the bottom; and to make two incisions acress, one near the top, and the other near the bottom, of the trunk. For the purpose of stripping off the bark, a curved knife, with a handle at each end, is used. Sometimes it is stripped in pieces the

pieces, cross cuts being made at certain mission of moisture. The ancient Egyp-intervals. In some instances, the perpentians frequently made coffins of it. On dicular and transverse incisions are made, and the cork is left upon the trees, until, by the growth of the new bark beneath, it becomes sufficiently loose to be removed by the hand. After the pieces are dotached, they are soaked in water, and, when nearly dry, are placed over a fire of coals, which blackens their external surface. By the latter operation, they are rendered smooth, and all the smaller blemishes are thereby concealed; the larger holes and cracks are filled up by the introduction of soot and dirt. They are next loaded with weights to make them even, and subsequently are dried and stacked, or packed in bales for exportation.—The uses of cork were well known to the ancients, and were nearly the same these are therefore downward—a circumto which it is applied by us. Its elasticity renders it peculiarly serviceable for the stopping of vessels of different kinds, and thus preventing either the liquids therein contained from running out, or the external air from passing m. The use of cork for stopping glass bottles is generally considered to have been introduced about the 15th century. The practice of employing this substance for jackets to a sist in swimming is very ancient; and it has been applied in various ways towards the preservation of life when endangered by shipwreck. The cork jacket, revived from an old German discovery by Mr. Dubourg, to preserve the lives of persons in danger of drowning, is constructed as follows:-Pieces of cork, about three inches long by two wide, and the usual thickness of the bark, are enclosed between two pieces of strong eigth or cauvass, and formed like a jacker without sleeves; the pieces of cloth are sewed together round each piece of cork, to keep them in their proper situations; the lower part of the jacket, about the hips, is made like the same part of women's stays, to give freedom to the thighs in swimming; it is made sufficiently large to fit a stout man. and is secured to the body by two or three strong straps sewed far back on each side, and tied before; the strings are thus placed to enable any wearer to tighten it to his own convenience.—The floats of nets used for fishing are frequently made of cork. Pieces fastened together make buoys, which, by floating on the surface of the water, afford direction for vessels in harbors, rivers, and other places. In some parts of Spain, it is customary to line the walls of houses with cork, which

a the rate material states of a con-

whole length, and sometimes in shorter, renders them warm, and prevents the adaccount of its lightness, cork is used for false legs; and from its being impervious to water, it is sometimes placed between the soles of shoes, to keep out moisture. When burnt, it constitutes that light black substance known by the name of Spanish black. In the cutting, of corks for use, the only tool employed is a very broad, thin and sharp knife; and, as the cork tends very much to blunt this, it is sharpened on a board by one whet or stroke on each side, after every cut, and now and then: upon a common whetstone. The corks for bottles are cut lengthwise of the bark, and consequently the pores lie across. Bungs, and corks of large size, are cut in a contrary direction: the pores in stance which renders them much more defective in stopping out the air than the others. The parings of cork are carefully kept, and sold to the makers of Spanish black.

CORMORANT (a corruption of the French words corbeau marin); the trivial name of a genus of aquatic birds included by Linné under pelecanus, but properly removed thence by Brisson, to form a distinct genus, denominated phalacrocora. term is indicated by Pliny, as being the Greek name for the cormorant, though it is not employed by Aristotle, who called the bird hydrocorax, or sea-crow, whence the French name above-mentioned. The cormorants belong to the family totipalmes of Cuvier, steganopodes, Bonap. are aquatic birds, having the great toe united to the others by a common membrane, and their feet are thus most admirably adapted for swimming; yet they are among the very few web-footed birds capable of perching on the branches of trees, which they do with great ease and security. The genus is distinguished by the following characters:—a moderate-sized, robust, thick, straight and compressed bill, having the upper mandible seamed, and rounded above, with the ridge distinct, unguiculated and hooked at the point, which is rather obtuse. The lower mandible is somewhat shorter, truncated at tip, osseous throughout, and furnished, at the base, with a small, naked. coriaceous membrane, which is continued on the throat. The nostrils, opening in the furrows, are basal, lateral, linear, and scarcely visible; the tongue is cartilaginous, very short, carinated above, papillous beneath, and obtuse. The occiput is very

protuberant; the face and small pouch are maked; the neck is rather short, and of moderate strength; the body is compressed. The feet are short, robust, and rather turned outwards; the legs are wholly feathered, and closely drawn towards the belly; the tarsus is naked, one third shorter than the outer toe, much compressed and carinated before and behind. The outer toe is the longest, and edged externally by a small membrane; the webbing membrane is broad, full and entire; the hind toe is half as long as the middle, and all are provided with moderate-sized, curved, broad, bluntish nails, the middle, one being serrated on its inner edge, and equal to the others. The wings are moderate and slender, with suff quills, of which the second and third primaries are longest; the tail is rounded, and compesed of 12 or 14 rigid feathers.—About 15 species of cormorant are at present known, and are distributed over the whole world, engaged in the same office,-that of aiding to maintain the due balance of animal life, by consuming vast numbers of the finny tribes. Like the pelicans, to which they are closely allied in conformation and habits, the cormorants reside in considerable families near the waters whence they obtain fish. It is scarcely possible to imagine any animal better adapted to this mode of life, since they dive with great force, and swim under water with such celerity that few fish can escape them. When engaged in this chase, they not only exert their broadlywebbed feet, but ply their wings like oars, to propel their bodies forward, which, being thin and keel-shaped, offer the least degree of resistance to the water. They swim at all times low in the water, with little more than the head above the surface, and, therefore, though large birds, might easily be overlooked by one unaccustomed to their habits. Should a cor-, morant sejze a fish in any other way than by the head, he rises to the surface, and, tossing the fish into the air, adroitly catches it head foremost as it falls, so that the fins, being properly laid against the fish's sides, cause no murry to the throat of the bird. This precaution is the more necessary, as the cormorants are very voracious feeders, and are often found not only with their stomachs crainmed, but

with a fish in the mouth and throat, which

remains until the material below is digested, and is then passed into the stom-

ach. When standing on shore, the cor-

morant appears to very little advantage,

both or account of the proportions of its

head, neck and body, and because of its awkward manner of keeping itself erect. being under the necessity of resting upon its rigid tail feathers. But, mounted in air, these birds are of swift and vigorous flight, and, when desirous of rest, alight upon the branches of tall trees or the summits of rocks, where they delight to spread their wings and bask for hours in the sun. They select similar situations for building their nests, though sometimes they make them upon the ground or among reeds, always rudely and with coarse materials. In them they lay three or four whitish eggs.—That the services of birds, which are such excellent fishers, should be desired by man, is by no means . surprising; and we are informed that the Chinese have long trained cormorants to . fish for them. This training is begun by placing a ring upon the lower part of the bird's neck, to prevent it from swallowing its prey. After a time, the cormorant learns to deliver the fish to its master without having the ring upon its neck. It is said to be a very interesting sight to observe the fishing-boats, having but one or two persons on board, and a considerable number of cormorants, which latter, at a signal given by their master, plunge into the water, and soon return, bringing a fish in their mouths, which is willingly relinquished. The male and female resemble each other, in size and plumage; but the young, especially when about a year old, differ greatly from the adult birds. They charge their thick, close, black plumage, or moult, twice a year, acquiring additional ornaments in winter. Four or five species of cormorants are known to be inhabitants or occasional visitors of the American continent; but, with the exception of P. graculus, which, is very common, and breeds in Florida (though also abundant within the arctic and antarctic circles), they'are rather rare, and only seen during winter in the U. States. In some parts of Europe frequented by species of the cormorant, they commit great depredations upon the fishponds, which are kept for the purpose of supplying the tables of the proprietors; and in Holland, they are said to be especially troublesome in this way, two or three of these greedy birds speedily clearing a pond of all its finny inhabitants. From their great voracity and entirely piscivorous regimen, it will readily be inferred that their flesh promises very little to gratify the epicure. It is so black, tough, and rankly fishy, that few persons venture upon it more than once, where ..

any thing else can be had. Nevertheless, naval officers, and others, condemned, by the nature of their service, to situations where they are long debarted from fresh provisions, sometimes have the cormorant served at their tables, after having taken the precaution to skin it, and endeavored, by the artifices of cookery, to disguise its

peculiar flavor.

Coan; a hardened portion of cuticle, produced by pressure; so called, because barley. Corns are generally found on the outside of the toes, but sometimes between them, on the sides of the foot, or even on the ball. They gradually penetrate deeper mto the parts, and sometimes occasion extreme pain, and, from the frequency of their occurrence, hold a prominent rank among the petty miseries of mankind, and frequently exert no small influence upon the temper of individuals. A monarch's corns may affect the welfare of a nation. No part of the human body, probably, has been injured so much by our injudicious mode of dress, as the feet, which have become, in general, deformed; so much so, that sculptors and painters can hardly ever copy this part from living subjects, but depend for a good foot almost solely on the remains of ancient art. To this general deformity of the foot belong the corns, produced by the absurd forms of our shoes and boots. They appear, at first, as small, dark points in the hardened skin, and, in this state, stimulants or escharotics, as nitrate of silver (lunar caustic), are recommended. The corn is to be wet, and rubbed with a pencil of the caustic every evening. It is well to have the skin previously softened. If the corn has attained a large size, removal by cutting or by ligatifie will be proper; if it hangs by a small neck, it is recommended to tie a silk thread round it, which is to be tightened every day, until the corn is completely removed. In all cases of cutting corns, very great precaution is to be observed. The feet ought always to be bathed previously. Mortification has, in many instances, resulted from the neglect of this precaution, and from cutting too deep. Another simple and generally very efficacious means, is the application of a thick adhesive plaster, in the centre of which a hole has been made for the reception of the projecting part, From time to time, a plaster must be added. Thus, the surfounding parts being pressed down, the corn is often expelled, and, at all events, is prevented from enlarging. Paring with files, rubbing with fish-skin,

&c., have been likewise found effective. In large cities, as London, Paris, &c., people make a business of curing corns.

CORN, INDIAN. (See Maize.)

Corn Laws. An adequate supply of bread stuffs is evidently of the very first importance to every country, and should be as regular as is possible, since sudden fluctuations in an article of so universal, necessity are injurious, and scarcity, with the consequent high prices, brings distress a piece can be picked out like a corn of \* upon the poorer classes, and is a fruitful cause of discontent and convulsions. The best means of securing a sufficient and steady supply of this article is a subject of some diversity of opinion, and the practice of governments has varied much at different times. One theory, urged by Adam Smith, but questioned by Mr. Malthus and most others, is, that the government should do absolutely nothing in the matter, on the ground that the farmers and corn-merchants, if unchecked, will always form correct views of their own interest, and that their interest will coincide with that of the community. But broad, sweeping theories of this sort are rarely adopted in the practical administration of affairs; and a government, in making regulations on this subject, as on every other, loads at its internal condition, the character and pursuits of its population, and its foreign commercial relations; and though it may not judge correctly of the best means of securing a steady and sufficient supply, this does not prove that a total neglect of the subject would be the wisest and safest policy in all countries and at all times. It is certain, however, that very unwise measures have often been resorted to, and sometimes such as tended to aggravate the cyll rather than to provide a remedy. One way to guard against a scarcity is that adopted by the king of Egypt, in the time of Joseph—the purchasing of corn by the government, in time of plenty at home, or importing it from abroad, and storing it in public magazines, to be distributed as the public wants may demand. But this system is attended with great expense, and affords but an uncertain and inadequate provis-Most governments, accordingly, instead of making direct purchases, attempt to provide a remedy by the passage of This subject of grain legislation is by no means entirely modern. The Athenians had laws prohibiting the exportation of corn, and requiring merchants who loaded their vessels with it in foreign ports, to bring their cargoes to Athens. The public provision and distribution of

our was an important branch of administration at Rome, and very intimately, connected with the public tranquillity. The regulation of the supply of corn and the trade in the article has been a fruitful subject of legislation in modern Europe. But it is to be observed, that the public solicitude and current of legislation take this direction only in populous countries, or at least those in which the population presses hard upon the means of domestic production of bread stuffs; for a country of which, like Poland, the staple export is corn, needs to take no measures for securing a supply; and as flour and Indian nical are great articles of exportation in the U. States, this country has had no occasion for laws to guard against a famine, since the ordinary course of industry and trade gives the greatest possible security, by producing a surplus of provisions, which a high price at home, in anticipation of any scarcity, will be sure to retain for the supply of domestic wants. In agricultural countries, the object of solicitude is to supply the want of arts and manufactures, as in populous and highly improved countries, it is to supply the want of food. But the laws directed to this object have been very various, and some of them contradictory; for as in Athens, so in Eng-'land at one period, the laws prohibited the exportation of com; whereas, at another period, and for a very long one in the · latter country, a bounty was given on the exportation; and both these laws had the same object, viz. the adequate and steady supply of the article. For this purpose, the bounty is the measure undoubtedly calculated to produce the effect intended, and the permanent prohibition of exportation must aggravate the scarcity which it is intended to prevent. Such a bounty tends to stimulate a surplus production, and so to give a country, by this factitions encouragement, the same security, in respect to a supply, as results from the spontaneous course of industry and trade in Poland, the southern part of Russia, and the U. States. But the objection to the bounty is its great expense, requiring, as it does, the imposition of a tax, and, at the same time, raising the price of the article to the domestic consumer. To se-Fure the advantages, and avoid some of the burthens of this law, Mr. Burke, in 1773, proposed the system of corn laws since adhered to in Great Britain, according to which no bounty is paid, but the exportation of corn is permitted when it is sold under a certain price in the home market. This price is determined by the

average sales in certain specified places for a given time; and, when it rises above! a certain other fixed price, the importation is permitted. By Mr. Burke's vill, wheat might be exported when the price was under 44 shillings the quarter, and imported when it was over 48 shiftings. The home grower is, therefore, sure to be free from foreign competition at any price under 48 shillings, and this gives him confidence in pursuing this species of cultiva-The rates or prices at which expostation and importation have since been allowed, have varied, from time to time, very materially; but the principles of the laws and their effect are the same. This system is allowed by Mr. Malthus and many others, who are, in general, opposed to restrictions and encouragements of trade, to be the best system by which the home supply could be secured; and they further think, that Great Britain could not safely open its ports to a perfectly free trade in so essential an article, since the fluctuations of price and the occasional scarcity; in consequence of wars or other interruptions of trade with the countries depended upon for a supply, would produce great distress, and tend to breed disturbances and riots in the kingdom.

Cornaro, Ludovico, was descended from a Venetian family which had given several loges to Venice, and, in the 15th century, a queen to the island of Cyprus, who left that kingdom to the Veftetian republic. He died at Padua, in 1566, aged 104 years, without pain or struggle. From the 25th to the 40th year of his age, he was afflicted with a disordered stomach, with the gout, and with slow fevers, till at length he gave up the use of medicine, and accustomed himself to extreme frugality in his diet. The beneficial effects of this he relates in his book entitled The Advantages of a temperate Life. Cornaro's precepts are not, indeed, applicable, in their full extent, to every constitution; but his general rules will always be correct. . His diseases vanished, and gave place to a state of vigorous health and tranquility of spirits, to which he had hitherto been an entire stranger. He wrote three additional treatises on the same subject. In his work upon the Birth and Death of Man, which he composed in his 95th year, he says of himself, "I am now as healthy as any person of 25 years of age. I write daily 7 or 8 hours, and the rest of the time I be-.cupy in walking, conversing, and occa-, sionally in attending concerts. I am happy, and relish every thing that I cat. My imagination is lively, my memory

tenacious; my judgment good; and, what is most remarkable, in a person of my advanced age, my voice is strong and harmonious."

' CORNEILLE, Peter, the founder of French tragedy, and the first, in point of time, among the great authors of the age of Louis XIV, was born at Ronen, June 6, 1606, at which place his father was advocate-general. In his later and more finished works, he showed how which prevailed during the first years of the reign of Louis XIII, had influenced the formation of his character. A somewhat equivocal success with the mistress of his friend, to whom he was unsuspectingly introduced by her lover, first made him a comic writer. He related this adventure in verse, and brought it on the stage, under the name of Mélite, in the year 1629. Its great success encouraged hun to persevere, and he soon produced Clitandre, La Veuve, and La Galerie du Palais, La Suivante and La Place Royale, the last of which appeared in 1635. The success of these pieces was so great, and the applause so universal, that a parficular company of actors was established for their performance, and many of them, modernized in some respects, retain their place on the stage to this day. The neglect of nature was common to Corneylle with his contemporaries. His Media, phoduced in 1635, was unuated from Seneca, and written in the declamatory style of that author. At that time, cardinal Richcheu retained several poets in his pay, who were obliged to write comedies from plots furnished by him. Corneille was about to place himself in the same situation; but a change, which he took the liberty of making, in a plot submitted to bim, offended the cardinal, and prevented the execution of this plan. He then withdrew to Rouen, where he met monsieur de Chalon, the former secretary of Mary of Medici, who advised him to turn his aftention to tragedy, and recommended the Spanish writers as models. Upon this, Corneille learned the Spanish language, and, in 1636, produced the Cid, which confirmed the predictions of his intelligent friend. Cardinal Richelieu was the only person who did not join in the general adimration, and, mortified by the poet's open regetion of his offered patronage, induced the newly-established academy to decry the ments of the Cid. Chapelam, by whom the criticism was written, attempted to satisfy the founder, without too much offending the general opinion. The Sen-VOL. III.

timent de l'Académie Française sur la Tra-. gi-comédie du Cid is, therefore, more cred-Itable to the learning than to the taste of the French literati. Others hoped, by decrying the poet, to obtain the favor of the ıninister. But the works of Corneille were a sufficient answer to their attacks. In 1639, his *Horoces* made its appearance (the earlier editions had the title Horace, but the later ones have Horaces), whereby'. he refuted the reproach of a deficiency of much the court intrigues, and the troubles invention; which was, however, repeated, when he brought out his Heraclius, w 1647, imitated from Calderon, and the Menteur, m 1642, after Pedro de Roxas This objection, perhaps, was the cause of the poet's leaving modern subjects; for henceforward, he applied himself almost exclusively to the Roman; and the strict patriotism of the ancient, with the artful politics of the more modern Romans, as 30 ingenious critic says, now took the place of that chivalric honor and faith, the representation of which in the Cid shows hun to participate in the spirit of the Spanish diamatic writers. The French critics are inclined to consider Cinna, which appeared in 1659, as his masterpiece; but foreigners will not place it above Polyeyete. The happy blending of the pathetic with the dignified gravity to which Corneille so much inclines, makes this piece more attractive than the others. In the Mort de Pompee, which appeared in 1641, the noble dignity of the piece cannot excuse its bombast. In his Menteur, nature and truth of description take the place of the artificial tone then prevalent; and a comparison of this piece with the Spanish original (La Sospechosa Verdad) may be instructive to the friends of dramatic literature. At length, the genius of this prolific poet seemed to have been exhausted. Rhodogune, the favorite of Corneille, produced in 1646, leaves a painful impression, and the artful combination of the accumulated terrors of the piece cannot redeem The later works of Corneille (e. g., Heraclius, which appeared in 1647, Don Sanche d'Arragon, Andromède, a piece with masic, processions and dancing), are less known, and, according to the opinion of the French, less worthy of being so, with the exception of Nicomède, which appeared in ,1652, and which was revived by Talma, and still maintains its place upon the stage. The disdainful scorn of fate, in the hero of this piece, is susceptible of very great effect; but that rhetorical annihesis prevails in it which is found in many of Corneille's Becoming distrustful of his talents. Cor, neille now wished to abaudon dramatic writing, and applied himself, for sex years, to the translation of the De Imitatione Jesu Christi, the first book of which he had, previously finished in verse. At length, Fouquet entreated him to devote his talents again to the stage. Edipe, in 1659, and Sertorius, m 1662, were received with the applause which had been given hou in his best days, and he endeavored to secure the public favor by accompanying the exhibition of the piece with splendid scenery. But his subsequent pieces—Otho, . Agesilos, Attila, and many other -proved the tailing power of a poet who had formerly shown himself without a rival. Of 33 pieces which Corneille left, only 8 still retain their places on the stage. Time has established his fame, and the French, long ago, surnamed him the Great, though Voltaire, the editor of his works, and La Harpe, who followed in the steps of his great predecessor, do not pronounce an entirely favorable sentence upon his incrits. A. W. Schlegel has criticised him in a masterly mode, and Lessing has pointed out, in a striking manner, the defects in the plots of many of his pieces. At is, indeed, sincerely to be regretted, that his great talents, which were displayed so brilliantly in the Cid, should have been so much checked in their development by his inclination to the classe, or, rather, Roman forms. It was owing to the encumstances of the fates, that he was no duced to take political subjects as materials for tragedy. Voltage remarked their influence, upon the regedy of Conna, and did not ful to see that the interest, in many parts of Polyence, musc have been mereased by the Jansense controverses, which may, in fact, it we given occasion to the passage -. Compute had nothing captivating in his manners. His conversation was tedious, and by no means well chesen. . Like Turenne, he was, in early years, corsidered ac deficient in talent. In his external appearance, he resembled an infenor tradestant of Rouen, and it is very easy, then, to conceive that, with rather rude manners, and a high sense of his ments, he could not teel houself in his proper sphere at court. His profession and talents did not make him rich, and he lived with great frugality. During the year 1647, he was received into the French academy in the place of Waynard, and died Oct. 1, 1684, being the oldest member. A descendant of the eldest of his two sons lived till the year 1×13, and was as little favored by fortune as the grandpriece of Cornelle, to whom Voltare, by

the edition of the works of her great-uncle. discharged the debt of his country. The latest views of the French concerning this great man, who did so much for the catablishment of their theatre, are found in an Eloge de Corneille, par M. Victoria Fabre, which received the prize of the French academy in 1807, and which has saice been republished. The most conplete and correct edition of his works, enriched by the principal productions of his brother, by Voltaire's commentances, and by a selection of Pulissot's notes, was published by Renound, Paris, 1817, in 12 volumes. Napoleon is described, in the memoirs of Las Cases, as having said, that, had Corneille hved in his time, he would have made him a prince. The emperowas fond of reading the works of this poet during his abode on St. Helena, whilst he neated with comparative neglect several other poets adored by the French nation

Cornernal, Thomas, brother of the preceding, was borne at Rouen, Aug 20, 1625, and hved in the most friendly umon with Lis brother Peter till the death of the latter.  $\Lambda$  comedy, which he wrote in Latin verse, while he was a scholar at the Jesuits' college, and which obtained the bonor of a representation, as well as the success which attended the works of his brother, determined him to turn his attertion to the drama. His first comedy, car ed Les Engagements du Hasard, which appeared in 1647, and was an mutation of Calderon, was successful. Many sum-La ones soon followed, also borrowed from the Spannards. The number of his dramatic works is 42; yet most of them are now so little known, that even the care logue of them in the records of the French academy will be found erroneous and incomplete The comedice, however, at the time of their appearance, were receive ed with greater interest, if possible, than those of the great Cornelle, in initiaties of whom Thomas applied Immself to traged; and his Timocrate, which appeared m 1656, was received with such continual applause, that the actors, weary of repeat ing it, entreated the audience, from the stage, to permit the representation of something else, otherwise they should forget all their other pieces. Since that time, is has not been brought upon the boards at Camma, m 1661, produced an equal The spectators thronged in sensulio.i. such numbers to wirness the representation, that scarcely room enough was left for the performers. Of his dramatic works which now ment attention, are Ariane, which maintained a competition with Ra-

canc's Bajazet; L'hiconnu, a heroic comedy. in 1675, which, in 1724, was repre-, sented at a festival at the Tuilcries, with a ballet, in which Louis XV and the young lords of his court danced; and, especually, Le Comte d'Esser, which he produced in 1678. This last piece, as This last piece, as well as Stilicon and Ariane, is sometimes represented at the present day. Thomas, according to the judgment of Voltaire. although inferior to his brother, stood seeond to none but him, and his style is more pure. In 1685, he succeeded his brother in the French academy, by a unanimous vote, and, after his election, mmediately undertook the publication of the French Dictionary, which appeared in 1694. He tron prefixed notes to Vaugelas's Remarks, and finally added a supplement to the Pictionnaire de l'Académie, in which he explained the terms of art and science. This may be regarded as the basis of the subsequent *Encyclopédic*. Thomas Corre ille was also admitted into the academy of inscriptions, and was a dibgent contribmor to the Mercure galant, with his friend De Visé. In old age, he lost his sight, end ded, highly honored by his contemporares, and beloved for his social virtues, at Andelys, Dec. 8, 1709. In his conversation, Le was lively and natural. He left two ch blica; and Voltane tree 1 the daugh-4 of his son Francis in manage with the count de la Tour du Pan. A selection of his dramas is commonly found annexed to the editions of his brother's works, and I is is maining productions, for the most part a merseded by better, as not collected.

Cornelly, the mother of the Gracers, Gaughter of Sequo Afreauts the eld ; and wife of the consul Gracelius, was a 1 die-minded Roman maren; who lived assut 1910 years B.C. To her sons (see Greecens) she gave an excellent education, and, being in company with a Roman lady who was displaying her jewels, and desired to see the jewels of Cornelia, presented her sons as her most precious jewes. At her death, the Romans erected a r in agent to her proporty. Cornelia is one of those women for whom the history of Rome is distinguashed before all others. In the history of no nation do we fed so many examples of mothers and waves remarkable for nobleness of spirit.

Cheneura or Carrellan (cornaline, brownia), tal.; from carrella, we corrella, lat.); a paceous stone, of a light-red or flesh-color, whence its name carnaline. It is much used for scale, bracelots, necklares, and other articles of minute general pare. Its name, cerulian, is derived

from corneus, or horny, it being reckoned by mineralogists among the hornstones. It was known to the Romans, as we learn from Pliny, by the name of sarda, from being found originally in Sardinia. Cornchans are of various colors, from a light and fleshy red, opague, and semi-transparent, with and without veins, to a brilliant transparency and color approaching the i ruby, from which they are, however, known by sare distinctive marks. Winck-"ellnann describes a cornelian of this latter sort, on which was engraved a portrait of Pempey. The cornelian is a stone well utted for engraving in intaglio, or sinking as for scals, being of sufficient hardness to receive a time polish, and wax does not adhere to it, as it does to some other sorts of stones which are used for reals, and the impression comes off-clear and perfect. The number of the cornelians that were engraved by the ancients, and have reached our times, is very considerable, and rearly equal to that of all the other kinds of gems with which we are acquainted. From an ancient epithet—"cornelian of the Al 10ck"-Play conceives that they were taken from a rock of that material nen Babylon. He thinks they were clarified by being steeped in the honey of Corsica. 'The royal collection at Paris, and the British museum of Lo: don, have numerous aucsent and beautiful engraved a cornelians. Many of the latter were found; in the field of Canno in Apulia, where Hanmbal defeated the Romans.

Cornelius, a painter, born at  $H_{\rm e}$ rleer to 1562, studied the rudiments of his art with Peter Ertsens the younger, and afterwards worked at Antwerp, under Peter Porbus and Giles Coignet. In 1583, he returned to Haerlem, where his great panning—the company of arquebusiers— established his reputation. Descamps called it a collection of figures, sketched by the Genrus of History. In 1595, with Charles van Mander, he instituted an academy for painting at Haerlem.—This numerous pictures are raiely to be bought, on account of the great value which the Flemings set upon them. Cornelis painted great and small preces, historical subjects, portraits, flowers, and especially subjects from ancient mythology. The drawing is admirable. He is a true mutator of nature, and his coloring is always lively and agreeable. The galleries at Vicana and Dresden contain some of his pieces. J. Müller, H. Golžius, Saenredam, L. Killian, Matham, Van Geyn, and many others, have unitated his manner. He died in 1638.

Colnelius Nepos. .. Roman Mistorian,

born in Cisalpine Gaul, lived in the golden age of the Roman language, in friendship with Catillus, Cicero and Pomponius Atticus, and died 30 years B. C. Of his numerous writings, only his Lives of distinguished Generals have come down to us. In this work, he gives, in a classical style, with great brevity and distinctness, 24 biogra-· phies of the most remarkable Grecian heroes of annuaty, together with the lives of some barbarian generals, and also that of . Cato the elder, finishing his work with the life of Attictis. His characters are, in general, strikingly illustrated, though he does not always observe a just proportion in has relations, sometimes treating important s abjects in too concise, and triffing ones in too prolix a manner; and, indeed, he does not always draw from the most trustworthy sources. On account of his brevity, heathrows little new light on history; and at is generally believed that the book which has reached us is an extract from the works of Nepos, made by Emilius Probus, in the time of Theodosius. The edition of this author by Van Staveren (Leyden, . 1773) is the most valuable. Other good editions, of a later date, are those of Fyscher. Harles, Tzschucke and Brenn.

Converius, Peter, a native of Dusseldorf, was director of the academy of arts there, and, since 1824, has been director of the academy of arts at Mumch. He formed himself at Rome, by the study of the master of the old Italian and German schools, and is to be considered as the first living German painter. He has a true poetical spirit, and is, among painters, newly what Thorwaldsen is among sculptors. The power and originality of his conceptions are recognised, even by those who find him deficient in strict accuracy of drawing, and sometimes in coloring in his fresco pictures. His spirited and carefully-finished drawings in risk are in neigh request among cornerseurs. His cenes from Goth '- Frust, engraved by Ru-cheweih, as well as his plates to the Nibehingenlied (q. v., show his spirited conception of poetic thoughts, in which respect, few living artists equal him. He was eygaged in preparing his designs from Dante, to be executed in fresce, in the Villa Massing, at Rome, when Lous, the crownprince, now king, of Bayana, employed him to paint the saloons of his Glyptotheca (q. v.), or museum of sculpture at Mirnich. For this purpose, Cornehus left Rome in 1819, and lived alternately at Dússeldorf and Mümch, where he finished the cartoons which he had already in part ske ched at Rome. The subjects of

these frescoes are taken from the mythology of Homer, Hesiod, and the old heroic world. He is now settled at Munich. The paintings of Cornelius, in the Ghyptotheca above-mentioned, form some of the grandest monuments of the fine arts of the present age.

CORNET; a wind instrument, now but little known, having, more than a century since, given place to the hauthoy. There were three kinds of cornets—the treble, the tenor and the bass. The treble and tenor cornets were simple curvilineal tubes, about three feet in length, gradually increasing in diameter from the mouth-piece towards the lower end. The baseomet was a serpentine tube, four or five feet long, and increasing in diameter in the same manner.

CORNET, in military language, is the third officer in a company, in England and the U. States. He bears the colors of the troop. In the Prussian army, the name cornet is abolished.

CORNU COPIE: horn of plenty. (See . Ichelous and Amalthea.)

Cornwall; a post-town in Iatchfield county, Connecticut, on the éast side of the Housatome; 10 miles N. W. Litchfield, 38 W. Hartford, 48 N. W. New Heven A foreign mission school was established here in 1817, under the direction of the board of commissioners for foreign missions. The object of it is to educate heathen children, so that they may be qualified to instruct their countrymen in Christianty and the rais of civilized life. The number of pupils, in 1822, was 31; of whom 19 were American Ludains, and 9 from the islands of the Pacific ocean.

Cocnwall, a maritime county of England, forming the south-western extremity of Great Britain, is surrounded by the sea, except on the castern side. Its superficial area has been found, by actual survey, to contam 758, 484 statute acres, or 1407 square nules. It is divided into 9 hundreds, and 206 parishes. The general aspect of Cornwall is very dreary, a ridge of bleak and rugged hills stretching through its whole length. Comparatively little attention is paid to agriculture in Cornwall, and most of its operations are still conducted in a very rude manner. Its principal wealth is denved from its mines, of which, according to an accurate map made in 1800, it appears that there were then 45 of copper, 28 of tin, 18 of copper and tin, 2 of lead, 1 of lead and silver, I of copper and silver, I of silver, I of copper and cobalt, 1 of tin and cobalt, and I of antimony. Some mines of manganese have been opened since that time.

Of the minerals of this county, which are, numerous, one of the most interesting is the soap-rock, particularly used in the manufacture of porcelain. The chinastone, which is raised in great quantities wear St. Austell, forms a principal mgredient in the Stuffordshire potteries. A great variety of fish frequent the coasts of this county: by far the most important of these are the pilehards, in the fishery of which 'a great capital is employed. Cornwall can boast of but few manufactures, except the preparation of its metals. Amiguiues, generally supposed to be Drudical, This county sends 42 memabound. bers to parliament. Population, 202,600. The Scally islands he about 9 leagues W. by S. of the Land's End, and are supposed to have been formerly connected with The intermediate and sur-Cornwall. ounding rocks are innumerable.

Corywallis, Charles, marquis of, was born in 1738, and received his education at Eton, and at St. John's college, Cambridge. Devoting himself to the profession of arms, he was appointed aide-de-camp to the king in 1765, and colonel of foot u 1766, and, after passing through all the various promotions, he obtained the rank of general. He represented the borough of Eye in parliament until the death of his ather, in 1762, when he succeeded to the ocerage. He did not distinguish lumself in parliament, either by the frequency or he cloquence of his speeches; and, in the nouse of peers, he appears to have been favorable to the claims of the American olomes; notwith-tanding which, he acepted a command in America, and distingar-hed Ilmself at the battle of Brandywine, in 1777, and at the siege of Charleson, and was narested with the covernment of South Carolina. After obtaining the victories of Canaden and Guilford, he Samed the plan of invading Virginia, which failed; and he was made presence with his whole army. He laid the blame of this defeat on sir Hemy Chiton, who uad not given him the succor he expected; and several pamphlets were published between them, in which sir Henry blamed both the scheme and its conduct. Soon after his return to England, he was reproved from his place of governor of the Tower of London, but was reappointed in 1784, and retained it tintil his death. 1786, lord Cornwallis was sent out to India, with the double appointment of commander-m-chief and governor-general; and not long after, the government of Beng I declared war against the sultan of the Mysore, for an attack upon the rajah

of Travancore, the ally of the English. The first campaign was indecisive; but in March, 1791, ford Cornwallis invaded the. Mysore, and, m the year after, besieged the city of Seringapatam, and obliged the sultan, Tippoo Saib, to sue for peace, and , to submit to such terms as he dictated. These were, to give up a part of his dominions, to pay a large sum of money, with a promise of a more considerable portion of treasure; and, as hostages for the performance of this treaty, Tippoo intrusted two of his sons to the care of On the conclusion of lord Cornwalls. this important war, lord Cornwallis returned to England, and, in 1792, was created marquis, appointed master-general of the ordnance, and admitted a member of the privy council. In 1798, at the time of the rebellion, he was appointed lord-heutenant of Ireland, which office he filled until 1801, conducting himself with great tirmness and judgment, united with a concileatory disposition. In the same year, he was sent to France, where he signed the peace of Aimens. In 1804, on the recall of the marquis of Wellesley, he was again appointed governor-general of India, and, the following year, died at Ghazepore, in the province of Benares. His personal character was annable and massuming, and, if his talents were not brilliant, his sound sense, aided by his landable ambition and perseverance, effected much. As a military man, he was active and vigilant, always giving his instructions in person, and attending to the performance of them.

Coro, or Venezuela, a fown in Venezuela, the capital of the province or district of Coro; 80 leagues W. of Caracas; lon. 69° 10′ W.; lat. 11° 24′ N.; population, 10,000. It is situated on a dry, sandy plain, on an isthmus which separates the lake of Maracaybo from the Carabbean sea. The streets are regular, but the houses are mean. The port is indifferent, and the commerce of the town is inconsiderable.

Corollasta (in Latin, corollarium); a conclusion from premises, or from a proposition demonstrated. Formerly, it was used to signify a surplus.

Coronannel, Coast of (Dsholamandol, country of millet); the eastern coast of Hudostan, along the Cacadic, so valled, extending from cape Calymere, lat. 10° 20', to the mouth of the Kustnah, lat. 15° 45' N.; length about 350 miles. It contains many flourishing cities, but Comiga is the only one which affords a harbor. Machas is the English provincial city. From the beginning of October until

46

April, north winds blow along the shore, and, during the first three months, with such vehennence, that navigation, during this period, is very dangerous. This is called the north-east monsoon. In the middle of April, the south winds begin, which last until the month of October. During this time, vessels can approach the coast with safety. The wind, during the day, is often glowing hot, but, in the might, becomes cool again. The sandy soil of the whole coast is not favorable for the cultivation of rice; but cotton is produced in great quantity, and, in its raw as well as its manufactured state, is the source of wealth to the industrious inhabitants.

Coron: a fortress in the Morea, 17½ leagues S. W. Tripolizza, and 4½ E. of Modon, on the eastern shore of the gulf of Modon; situated on a mountain; lat. 36° 47' 26" N.; lon. 21° 58' 52" E.; population, 5000.

Coronation; a solemn inauguration of a monarch, with religious ceremonies, which, in ancient times, when the right of succession to the throne was more uncertain or disputed than at present, or when the right to govern could not be obtained without undertaking certain foranal obligations, was deemed more necessary than in modern times. This act is not considered as necessary for establishing the rights and obligations of rulers and subjects; but it is very proper as a means of reminding both parties, in a solemn way, of the nature of their duties, The essential parts of the coronation are, first, the oath which the monarch takes, that he will govern justly, will always onsult the real welfare of his people, and will conscientiously observe the fundamental laws of the state; and, secondly, the placing of the crown upon his head with religious soleminties (prayer and anointing). In England, kings have been anomied and crowned in Westminster abbey, even to the latest times, with great splendor, and the observance of ancient feudal customs, many of which are very singular. So also in France, where the church of the archbishop of Rhenns has from ancient times enjoyed the provilege of the celebration of this ceremony. (Histoire du Sacre de Charles X, by F. M. Miel, Paris, 1825.) Splendid engravings of the coronations, both of king George IV of Great Britam, and of king Charles X of France, have made their appearance.\* The coro-

"The English king at arms, George Naylor, has nutrhished the history of the coronation of George IV, in a work of 120 pages, with 70 copperplates,

nation oath of Charles X ran thus:- "In the presence of God, I promise my people to defend and honor (de maintenir et d'honorer) our holy religion, as it becomes the most Christian king and the eldest son of the church: to cause justice to be done to all my subjects; finally, to govern in conformity to the laws of the kingdom, and to the charter, which I swear truly to observe; so help me God and his holy gos-pel." The coronation oath of the king of England is prescribed by 1 Wilham and Mary, c. 6, modified by 5 Anne, c. 8 and 39 40 George III, c. 67:—"· I solemnly promise and swear to govern the people of this United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the dominions thereto belonging, according to the statutes in parhament agreed on, and the laws and customs of the same; to the utmost of my power to maintain the laws of God, the true profession of the gospel, and the Protestant reformed religion established by the law; to preserve unto the bishops and the clergy of this realm, and the churches committed to their charge, all such rights and privileges as by law do or shall appertain ranto them or any of them.' After this, the king or queen, laying his or her hand upon the holy Gospels, shall say, 'The things which I have before promised, I will perform and keep; so help me God; and then shall kiss the book." The coronation of the German emperor, by the pope, n. former times, was the source of much disorder, as the emperor was generally obliged to go to Rome with an army Napoleon crowned himself, and then put the crown on the head of his wife Josephine.

Coroner; an officer in England and some of the U. States, the chief part of whose duty is to migune into the cause of the death of persons killed, or dying suddenly. In England, he inquires also into the cause of death of persons dying in prison. His examination is made, in all cases, with the aid of a jury, in sight of the body, and at the place where the death ' happened. In England, the coroner has also to inquire concerning shipwrecks, and certify, in any particular case, whether there be an actual wreck or not, and who is in possession of the goods; also to inquire concerning treasure trove; that is, gold or silver, which appears, when found, to have been purposely hidden, and remains unclaimed. / Such treasure, in England, be-

price 25 guineas,—the first official description of the ceremony in England, since the account of the coronation of James II, by Sandford, in 1687. longs to the king. The coroner, in that country, is also the sheriff's substitute; and, when an exception can be taken to the sheriff, for partiality, process is awarded to the coroner. In those of the U. States where there are coroners, their principal duty is to inquire into the causes of violent or extraordinary death. In Connecticut, the duty is performed by a pistice of the peace or a constable.

CORONET; an inferior crown, belonging to the English nobility. The coroner of an English duke is adorned with straw-berry leaves; that of a marquis has leaves, with pearls interposed; that of an earl raises the pearls above the leaves; that of a viscount is surrounded with pearls only; that of a baron has only four pearls.

CORPORAL. This word is written in the same, or in a similar, manner in many ·'anguages, and, at first sight, would seein-To be derived from corps (body); but it originates, in fact, from the French caporal and the Itahan caporale, which are derived from capo, the Italian form of the Latin' raput (the head). The change of the first syllable, ca, into cor, is of much antiquity. Du Fresne uses the Low Latin term corporalis. From this author it apocars, that corporal formerly signified a superior commander; but, like captain and many other words, it has sunk in its dignity. A corporal is now a rank and file man, with superior pay to that of common soldiers, and with nominal rank inder a sergeant. He has charge of one of the squads of the company, places and scheves sentinels, &c. Every company a the Eughsh service has three or four In armes m which privates may advance to the highest ranks, as in France, Prussia, &ck great care is taken in selecting corporals. In fact, they are officers of much importance, associating, is they do, with the privates, over whom heir superiority of rank gives them much influence. The feeling of imitary honor, good morals, and emulation in the disharge of duty, are, in a great degree, to be infused into the mass by means of the corporals.- A corporal of a man of war s an officer who has the charge of setting and relieving the watches and sentries, and who sees that the soldiers and sailors keep their arms neat and clean; he teaches them how to use their arms, and has a mate under him.

Corpor Trion. A corporation is a polineal or civil institution, comprehending one or more persons, by whom it is conducted according to the laws of its constitution. It is a conventional and artifi-

cial organ, of, an integral or individual character, whether it embraces one or more members, and is invested with certain powers and rights, varying according to the objects of its establishment. Its acts, when done in pursuance of its powers, are considered those of the body, or organ, and not those of the member or members composing the corporation. In respect to the number of members, corporations are divided into sole, consisting of one person, and aggregate, consisting of more than one. A corporation does not lose its identity by a change of its Hence the maxim, in the members. English law, that the king never dies; for the regal power is considered to be invested m a sole corporation, which continues the same, though the individual corporator may die. The whole political system is made up of a concatenation of various corporations, political, civil, religious, social and economical. A nation itself is the great corporation, comprehending all the others, the powers of which are exerted in legislative, executive and indicial acts, which, when confined within the cope, and done according to the forms, prescribed by the constitution, are considered to be the acts of the nation, and not merely those of the official organs. Corporation are also either local or at large. A nation, state, county, town or panish, is a local corporation; stage-coach or navigation compames, charitable and many other associations, may be at large and transitory, that is, not restricted as to the residence of their members, or the place at which their affairs are to be conducted; but, whether local or ambulatory, their objects, powers and forms of proceeding must be defined, for by these the metaphysical abstract entity, called a corporation, subsists; and the persons by whom this artificial conventional engine is operated cease to act as corporators the moment they pass beyoud the limits of the objects and powers of the institution. Corporations are created either by prescription or charter, but most commonly by the latter. The English government, and, indeed, most of the other governments of Europe, are corporations by prescription. All the American governments are corporations created by charters, viz. their constitutions. So private corporations may be established in either of these ways, and, whether by one or the other, they derive their powers and franchises, either directly or indirectly, from the sovereign power of the state. The improvements, among the moderns, in civil liberty, arts and commerce, took

their rise in private corporations. In the first volume of Robertson's Charles V will be found a very good Instorical view of the manner in which municipal corporations and communities contributed to the amehoration of the condition of the great mass of the population in the western part of Europe. The several governments, established after the dissolution of the Roman empire, had degenerated into a system of oppression, and the great , body of the people were reduced to a , state of actual servitude; and the condition of those dignified with the name of freenen was little preferable to that of the others. Nor was this oppression confined to the people inhabiting the country. times and villages found it necessary to ∡cknowledge dependence on some powexful lord, on whom they relied for protec-The inhabitants could not dispose of the effects acquired by their own inhistry, either, during life, by deed, or, at their decease, by will. They had no right to appoint guardians to their chiliren, and were not permitted to marry without purchasing the consent of their superior loid. If they once commenced a suit in the lord's court, they durst not terminate it by compromise, because this would deprive the lord of the perquisites due to him on pating sentence. Serviees of various kinds, no less disgraceful than oppressive, were exacted from them without mercy or moderation. The cities of Italy, being situated at a distance from their German superiors, whereby the ties of subjection were weakened, found it comparatively easy to extricate themselves from their political and commercial thraldom: and they were stimulated to the attempt by the excitement, icvival of trade, and influx of wealth, occasioned by the crusades. The spirit which animated the Italian enics spread itself into Germany and France, where the dilapidation and exhaustion of the wealth of the sovereigns and nobles, occasioned by the repeated and obstinate prosecution of these religious wars, put it in the power of the towns to extort, or to purchase at a low rate, exemption from many species of military oppression, servitude and merciiess exaction. In some supulated composition, the sovereign or baron granted charters of community (see Community), guarantying certain privileges in regard to personal liberty, municipal government and judicial administration. These char-ters, though on a limited scale, were equivalent, in character, to what are called reastitutions in the U. States; and the term

is still retained, on the continent of Europe, in the same application: thus the limitations to which the Bourbons submutted, when restored to the throne of France, are called the *charter*. most important immunities and privilege, granted in these charters were, in effect, limitations of the legislative and executive power of the sovereigns, they wouldvery naturally attempt to retract them, when a favorable opportunty offered , and that they did, and sometimes with success; but the corporations had one great advantage, in resisting these encroachments, in consequence of the struggles between the sovereigns and nobles; for the free cities, being very useful allies to either side in these contests, were treated with greater forbearance, so that the general tendency was to the enlargement and establishment of the rights and privileges of the citizen, and the restraint and reg ulation of the power of the sovereign This voluntary association of small commumities, which proved so powerful an engine in rearing the present political fabrics in Christendom, is no less effieient as an engine of political revolution and demolition; and it may be used with equal success for the best or the most permeious purposes, as every agand country has frequent opportunity of witnessing. Charters of incorporation for mere economical purposes, as the construction of roads and canals, and carrying on of banking, insurance, manufactures, & c., ase more frequent in the U. States then in any other country. Corporations are erected for undertaking which are, in England, conducted by jent stock companies; and, in some of the states, the character of these bodies has been modified by the laws, where then object is the conducting of some branch of industry, so as to render them either limited or absolute copartnerships, in respect to the joint hability of the individual members for the engagements of the company, though they still retain the character of corporations, in respect to the capacity to conduct business notwitlestanding the decease of any members. which, in ordinary copartnerships, usually effects a dissolution.

Corporation and Test Acts. The corporation act, passed in the 13th Charles II, 1661, prevented any person from being legally elected to any office belonging to the government of any city or corporation in England, unless he had, within the twelvemonth preceding, received the sacrament of the Lord's supper, we

cording to the rites of the church of England; and enjoined him to take the ouths of allegiance and supremacy when he took the oath of office. The test act, 25 Charles II, 1673, required all officers, . civil and military, to take the oaths, and make the declaration against transulatantiation, in the courts of king's bench or chancery, within six months after their admission; and also, within the same time, to receive the sacrament of the Lord's supper, according to the usage of the church of England, in some public The corporation act was principally directed against Protestant nonconformusts; the test act against Roman Catholics. In the year 1828, they were both abolished.

Corposant, or Corpo Santo (Italian, holy body); the electric flame which semetimes appears on the tops of the masts of vessels, and is also called Castor and Pollux and St. Elmo's fire.

Corps (French for body); a word often used in unhtary language, many of the terms of which are derived from the · French, they having begun the organization of armies on the system which now prevails. The term is applied to various kinds of divisions of troops.—Corps d'armee is one of the largest divisions of an army (the German Heresabtheilung).— Corps de garde; a post occupied by a body of men on watch; also the body which occupies it.—Corps de reserve ; a body of troops kept out of the action, with a view of being brought forward, if the troops previously engaged are beaten, or cannot follow up their victory, or are disorgamzed.—Corps volant (a flying body) is a body intended for rapid movements. It is always rather small.—Corps de battille is the main body of an army, drawn up to battle between the wings.

Corpulator: the state of the human body, when loaded with an excessive quantity of flesh and fat. The flesh ferms the muscular system; and, as extent being limited by the form of the particular muscular parts, its quantity can neither exceed nor fall below a cortain bulk. The fat is much less limited, and the production and deposition of it is confined to no such The formation of the definite form. muscular fibres, or the change of blood mto flesh, takes place in the capillary system formed by the minutest portions of the arteries at their termination in the muscles. (Concerning the production of fat, see Fat.) If blood is copiously furnished with nutritive matter, it is converted readily to muscular fibres and fat.

The secretion of fat depends, in a certain degree, on the state of the health. Children and females have a larger proportion of it than adult men. It is promoted by rich diet, a good digestion, corporeal inactivity, tranquillity of mind, &c. There is, however, a certain diseased state of the system, which, independently of all these influences, will increase the production and deposition of fat. We see young people and men, even such as are intelligent, and continually engaged in active business, very corpulent. The enormous corpulence of many men appears to hear no proportion to their food, and is evidently a disease, as many other secretions in the body; for example, the preparation and secretion of the bile, saliva, &c., are augmented by disease. Sandiford mentions an unborn child, in which he observed a monstrous mass of fat. pross saw a boy five years old, who weighed 150 pounds. Bartholini makes mention of a girl, aged eleven years, who weighed above 200 pounds. In the Philosophical Transactions, mention is made of an Englishman, named *Bright*, who weighed 609 pounds. Damel Lambert, of Leicester, in England, was, probably, the heavest man on record. He weighed 752 pounds. A Canadian, named Maillot, who exhibited himself in Boston, m 1829, weighed 619 pounds. Corpulency is often only the repletion of the cells of the cellular membrane with watery, gaseous and vaporized matter, arising from a marked tendency to disease, and often the commencement of actual dropsy. Moderate corpulence (embonpoint, in French) is. consistent with health, and is not opposed. to beauty, as it prevents angularity and unevenness in the surface of the body, and gives the parts rotundity. For this reason, moderately corpulent women and men preserve a beautiful and youthful appearance longer than lean persons. But if corpulence is excessive, it becomes troublesome, and, at length, dangerous, Water should then be drank instead of wme; milk, beer and brandy should be avoided; active bodily exercise should be taken, and employment provided for the Anxiety soon takes off superfluous fat, though grief sometimes produces it. In what cases medicine is to be resorted to, and what kinds should be used, must be left to the judgment of physicians. People sometimes resort to violent and miurious means to rid themselves of superfluous flesh. Madame Stich, the best actress in the theatre a: Berlin, took poison to reduce her person to the right

Juliet, and succeeded, though at the expense of her health. Instances of leanness as remarkable as those of corpulence are by no means rare. In 1830, a native of Vermont exhibited himself in the U. States. He called himself the living skeleton. His legs and arms were almost entirely deprived of flesh. The man was about 45 years old, and weighed 60 pounds.

Corpus Christi, or corpus Domini Jesti Unristi, means the consecrated host at the Lord's supper, which, according to the doctrines of the Catholic church, is changed, by the act of consecration, into the real body of Jesus the Savior. This doctrine, which was prevalent even in the 12th century, caused the adoration of the consecrated host, which, as it was thought, should be worshipped as the true body of Jesus. On that account, the people in the Catholic churches fall upon their knees whenever the priest raises the host; and throughout all countries in which the Catholic religion Is the only one tolerated, as Spain, Portugal, Italy, & c., the victicum (the name of the host, when carried to the house of a sick or dying man, that he may partake of it privately) is saluted with the same marks of adoration by every one who sees the priest pass with it or who helds the bell of the boys of the choir, when they go by. Alt who are riding dismount or leave their carmages to exhibit this mark of respect. All business, conversation and amusement is interrinted until the rudicum has passed. The Catholic church has ordained, for the consecrated host, a particular festival, called the corpus Christi feast. It owes its origin to the vision of a num of Lage, named Juliana, in 1230, who, while looking at the full moon, saw a gap in its och, and, by a peculiar revelation from heaven, learned that the moon represented the Christian church, and the gap, the want of a certain festival-that of the adoranon of the body of Christ in the consecrated host-which she was to begin to celebrate and announce to the world! On this account, the archdeacon James went to Large (the same who afterwards became pope under the title of Urban II ) in order to ordain such a festival, and he was confirmed in his purpose by a ·miracle. In 1264, while a priest at Bolsena, who did not beheve in the change of the bread into the body of Christ, was going through the ceremony of the benediction in his presence, drops of blotd fell upon his surplice, and when

dimensions for performing Shakspeare's he endeavored to conceal them in the folds of his garment, formed bloody images of the host. The bloody surplice is still shown as a relic at Cività Vecchia This circumstance forms the subject of one of the beautiful pictures of Raphael, in the Stanze di Rafaello. Urban IV puls hshed, in the same year, a bull, in which he appointed the Thursday of the week after Pentecost for the celebration of the corpus Christi festival throughout Christendom, and promised absolution for a period of from 40 to 100 days to the pentent who took part in it. Since then, thifestival has been kept as one of the greatest of the Catholic church. processions form an essential part of it The children belonging to the choir, with flags, and the priests with lighted tapers. move through the streets in front of the priest, who carries the host in a precious box, where it can be seen, under a canopy held by four laymen of rank. A crowd of the common people closes the procession. In Spain, it is customary for people of distinction to send their children, dressed as angels, to join the procession the different fraterinties carry then patronsaints, carved out of wood and highly adorned, before the host; astomsbarent and awe are produced, as well as feelings of devotion, by the splendor and magnificonce of the procession, by the brilliant appearance of the greamers, by the clouds of smoke from the censers, and the solenn. sound of the music. The festival is also a general holyday, in which bull fights games, dances and other amusements are not wanting. In Sicily, all the freedom. of a masquerade is allowed, and passagefrom Scripture history are represented to the streets. The whole people are in state of excitement. The festival is kept with more simplicity and dignity by the German Catholics. In Protestant countries, they merely go round to the churches in processions, and celebrate their worship with peculiar solemnities. (See Sacrament. Corps Demote (literally, the body

of the crim or offence) It is a figurative expression, used to denote those external marks, facts or circumstances which accompany a crime, and without the proof of which the crime is not supposed to be established. We have no correspondent expression in English, and the preceding exposition is peculiar to the civil law of continental Europe. We showld say, that certain proofs are indispensable to estabheld a crime, and that, unless they exist. there is no legal ground to convict the party: so that corpus delicti is equivalent

to the proofs essential to establish a crime. The following observations have reference to the jurisprudence of Germany. The marks of guilt, which constitute the corpus delicti, are, in many cases, perceptible in the traces remaining (facta permanentia); for instance, the wounds inflicted upon a man; a lampoon-posted up; written or printed words; counterfeit writings: in other cases, such traces exist only in the memory (facta transcuntia); as words merely spoken, &c. 1 criminal trial must always rest upon a corpus delicti clearly substantiated. Unless the death of a man is fully proved, and shown to have been occasioned by the cooperation of another, no sentence of horncide can be passed. An inspection of the body, in case of murder, or the statement of the injured party, m less hemons offences, confirmed with an oath, & c., is, accordingly, the first condation of a criminal process. Entire deficiency of the corpus delich can be supplied by no confession; and the latter remains without any effect, as, for instance, if a person should accuse hunself of having stolen something from another, or of having killed some one, and no person could be found from whom such thing and been stolen, or who had been killed. In the cases where the corpus delicti cannot be discovered by means of unmediate examination, because the door has destroyed all traces of it (for instance, by a total burning of the corpse of a murdered person), other encumstances must be sought for, which can afford certain proof of the crime; and without them pumshment cannot be legally pronounced by the court. It must further be ascertained, in a case of murder, that death has ensued m consequence of the wound; or, rather, that the wound inflicted was, in itself, a sufficient cause for the death. In this respect, the courts in Germany often go too far, by seeking for the most remote possibility, by which the corpus delicti may be rendered uncertain. In the famous tual of Fonk, in Cologue, it was one of the greatest faults, that the corpus delicti the wounds in the head of the dead man, Conen) had not been examined with sufficient medical accuracy, and that there was a search for a murderer before the It has hapmurder was ascertained. pened more than once that a person has been executed as a murderer of a missing person, who after some time, has reap-peared. No reliance ought, in most cases, to be placed upon the circumstance, that several persons pretend to have seen the corpse of the individual believed to have

been murdered, until the corper has actually been discovered, or until infallible evidence of the murder has been In crimes which leave no adduced. traces, the whole possible proof rests on witnesses and confessions. Even a confession of guilt by an accused party mus: be supported by other circumstances; e.g., actions which have been observed by other persons, and which have a bearing on the crime, and render it probable. the investigation of the corpus delicti, in a great many cases, the science of medicine must assist the law. Nevertheless, great uncertainty often remains, after all the aid which can be thus attained; for instance, in poisonings, and in cases where the point in question is, whether an infant was born alive or not. Frequently, questions are proposed to the physicians, which they cannot answer at all. In such cases: nothing is required of their but the declaration that nothing can be said with certainty. It is a very important question, whether preference ought to be given to the testimony of the physician who has attended the deceased till his death, or to the openion of the physician of the court at the official examination.\* In a famous case, in Germany, the inquest found traces of poisoning by aisenic, to sugh not the arsenic itself, whilst the physician attending during the lest illness of the deceased asserted that no symptom of porsoning had shown itself, and that the disease had taken its natural course. another case, the physician declared thar the deceased had died of the lock-jaw. occasioned by a wound, whilst the legal . exammers maintained that the wound had been without influence upon his death.

Corres Jeris (body of law) is a name given to the Justiman code and collections, in the 12th century, when the separate portions began to be considered as one whole. Under this name are included the Pandects, in three parts; the fourt, part, containing the nine first books of the Code; the fifth part, called the Volume, containing the Institutes, the Novels, \(\ellip{O}\) Authenties, in time subdivisions or collations; in addition to which, the collections of feudal laws, and the modern imperial edicts, forming a tenth collation, and the three remaining books of the code, are

In many parts of Germany, a physician, in the employ of the government, is attached to each district who sees that proper health regulations are observed, makes reports respecting births, deaths, & c., inquires into the emission of deaths which are attended with suspicious circumstances, and is, exofice, the medical adviser of the judical course.

edicts of the Romano-German emperors, as an eleventh collation. This, however, is not acknowledged, and the Corpus Juris civilis has been, since the time of Accursius, considered as completed. parts, even of the Justinian collection of laws, which were brought by the early commentators within the circle of their critical examinations, have not acquired, in the European courts of judicature, any legal authority, although they have been since received into the entire collection of the Roman law. With the canonical or papal laws, the same mode of proceeding has been adopted. From the old resolves of the councils, and the papal decrees, genume and spurious, Granan, in the middle of the 12th century, collected his Con-Ardantia discordantium Canonum, afterwards called the *Decretum*. In the 13th century, a collection of still later papal decisions or decretals, in five books (compiled by order of Gregory IX, by Ray-mond of Pennafort, in 1234), was added. These decretals were considered as supplementary and additional, and were therefore described and cited by the name of ertra. Bomface VIII (1298) allowed the addition of a sixth book. Clement V added the decrees of the coelesiastical council of Vienne (1301), under the name of the Clementines, or the seventh book of decretals, which completed the Corpus Juris Caronici, although pope John XXII, about 1340, and a learned individual, about 145% collected finither decretals of the popes, which were added as supplements, under the name of the Estravagaides. The name of Corpus Juris has also been given to many other codes and private collections of laws. There is a Corpus Juris Germanici Antiqui, by Georgisch; a Corpus Juris Feudalis, and a Corpus Juris Germanici, publici et privati. Me-dii Ævi, by Senkenberg : a Corpus Juris Militaris, published at Leopsic, &c. An edition of the Corpus Juris, which may correspond to the improvements of the age, and the progress of knowledge, has, for a long time, been a desideratum. Lately, a very convenient edition for ordinary use has been undertaken by J. L. W. fessor Schrader, of Tübingen.

Correa De Serra, Joseph Francis, a learned Portuguese scholar, was born at Serpa, in the province of Alentejo, in 1750. He commenced his studies at

comprised in the Corpus Juris. Some Rome, finished his education at Naples, scholars have attempted to add the later under the care of the celebrated abbe Genovesi, and afterwards devoted himself. to the study of the ancient languages and botany, at Rome. At the age of 27, he returned to his native land, with his friend, the duke of Lafoens. Correa was now actively engaged in the establishment of the royal academy of sciences at Lisbon, of which the duke of Lafoens was the founder, and the celebrated Pombal the patron. The former was appointed president of the academy, and Corres standing secretary. Both acted in concert, and their exertions established a cabinet of natural curiosities, a laboratory, &c., and particularly an important printingoffice, which they succeeded in freeing from all restraints of the press. Corres prepared, with the assistance of the members of the academy, a collection of unpublished documents (monumentos ineditos), relating to the history of his native coun try. In his botanical researches, he investigated the physiology of plants with distinguished ability. But, being exposed to the danger of becoming a victim to intolerance, he was obliged to take a hasty leave of Portugal. He visited Paris in 1786 . Here he associated with Broussenet (q. v.), the naturalist, on the most intimate terms. After the death of Peter III of Portugal, his enemies lost their influence, and he returned to Pornigal. Suisequently, Browssonet, flying from the reign of terror, arrived in Lisbon, where Ins connexion with Correa procured for him a flattering reception from the duke of Lafoens. But the French emigrants who could not forgive Broussonet, for the share which he had taken in the first movements of the French revolution, denounced him to the Inbunal of the inquismon as a Jacobin and a freemason, and implicated even his friend Correa. Nothing remained for Correa but to seek safety in flight, as Broussonet had already done. At this time, the diske of Lafoens kept hird concealed several days in the royal library. Correa then went to London, where su Joseph Banks, president of the royal society, received him under his protection, and introduced him to the society, and he was elected a member. He enriched the Beck, of which two volumes have already memors of the society with dissertations appeared (Leipsic). A complete critical on subjects of natural instory. By the edition has also been prepared by pro- interpocuon of the count of Linhares, mmster of the Portuguese marne, he was appointed counsellor of legation to the embassy at London. After the peace of Amiens, Correa resigned this post, and resided 11 years at Paris, where the institute

elected him a member. In 1813, his actentific zeal carried him to the U. States of North America. While here, the government of Portugal appointed him minister plenipotentiary to the U. States.

Correction of the Press. As it is of much importance for every one who appears in print to be able to correct the errors which occur in setting up the types, we have thought that a short account of the characters employed by printers for this purpose might be acceptable to many of our readers. The first impression taken from the types is called a proof; and almost always contains more or fewer errors. If the person who corrects these does not understand the various signs used in correcting by the printers, he is very liable to have his meaning mistaken; and many of the errors which occur in books are to be referred to this source. Of the printers' signs, the most important are those which follow: -When a wrong word or letter occurs, a mark is made through it, and the proper word or letter written in the margin against the line in which the error occurs. If a word or letter is omitted, a caret (A) is placed under the place where it should have stood, and the omission is written in the margin. If a superfluous letter occurs, it is crossed out, and the character &, signifying delc, written in the Where words are improperly margin. joined, a caret is written under the place where the separation should be made, and the character # written in the margin. When syllables are improperly separated, they are joined by a horizontal parenthesis; as, du ty. This parenthesis is to be made in the margin, as well as at the · break. When worlds are transposed, they are to be connected by a curved line, as, not is, when set up for "is not," and the character b. is to be written in the margin. When a letter is inverted, the mistake is pointed out by such a character as (in the margin. When marks of punctuation are omitted, a caret is put where the mark should have been inserted, and the comma or period, &c., is placed in the margin, enclosed in a circle; as, (,). a mark of quotation has been omitted, the caret is made as before, and a character · of this sort \ or \ placed in the margin. Words which are to be printed in Italics are marked beneath with a single line; as, office: if in small capitals, with two lines;

as, Greece: if in large capitals, with three; as, James. Where these marks are used

in correction, the abbreviations Ital., small caps. and caps. should be written in the margin. Where a word printed in Italies is to be altered to Roman letters, a line is to be drawn under it, and the abbreviation Rom. is to be written in the margin. Where a corrector, after altering a word, hanges his mind, and prefers to let it stand, dots are placed under it, and the word stet is written in the margin. When a hyphen is omitted, a caret is made under the place where it should be, and such a character as this (-) placed in the margin. The omission of a dash is pointed out in the same way, only the enclosed line in the margin is made a little longer. When a break is made, so as to produce a division into paragraphs, where this was not intended, the end of the one and the beginuing of the other paragraph are connected by a curved line (---, and the words no break are to be written in the margin. Where a new paragraph• is to be made, a caret is inserted, and this mark I placed in the margin. Where blemishes, such as crooked lines, &c., appear, it is sufficient to call the printer's attention by a dash of the pen to the place. It is always to be kept in mind, that the printer will not make any alteration in the text, finless his attention is drawn to it by characters in the margin. Persons correcting the press would do well to recollect, that no considerable amount of matter can be in erted into or taken from a page, without requiring the whole page of types to be deranged; and, as the length of the page is affected by the alteration, it must be adjusted at the ex-, pense of the next page, and so on; so that all the following pages may have to be disturbed. It is therefore very desirable, when an addition is made agrounting to more than a few letters, to strike out something of about equal length in the vicinity; so, when an crasure of more than a few letters is made, it is desirable to introducé an addition, of about the same ambunt, near the place where it occurs.

In the early times of the art of printing, more attention was paid than at present to the correction of the press, the books then printed being comparatively few and important, and superintended by learnest men in their progress through the press; while, in modern times, innot be taken the press; while, in modern times, innot be taken to forth in great haste. Some of the old presses are celebrated for any correct,

ness; and the works which have issued from them, therefore, are held in high esteem; e. g. the publications of the Alduses, the Stephenses, &c. It was not uncommon in those times for the proof-sheets to be hung up in some public place, that' any body might have an opportunity of detecting errors. From this custom the proof-sheets are still called, in German, Aushängebogen (sheets hung out). Some modern presses have been distinguished; and, in the case of particular works, consisting wholly or in part of tables of figures, or of arithmetical calculations, a reward has been offered for every error discovered. In the preface to Vega's logarithmic tables, two louis d'ors are offered for every erratum detected. On the whole, however, more attention has been paid, m modern times, to elegance than to correctness of execution. Some of the English newspapers deserve much credit for their correctness, considering the rapidity with which much of their contents is printed, as in the case of parliamentary speeches, delivered late at night, perhaps after midnight, and given to the public early the next The Germans, who are distinmorning. guished, in so many respects, for laborious accuracy, yet print with less correctness than the other great literary nations. Some of the editions of the works of their first authors have two or three pages of cirata.

Correccio, Antomo Allegri, ficquently called Antonio da Correggia, from the place of his birth, was born, in 1494, at Correggio, in the duchy of Modena, and was intended for a learned profession; but nature had designed him for an artist. Ιt has not been ascertained how much he was indebted to be instructer, who was probably his uncle Lorenzo Allegri. His gennis pointed out to him the way to immortality. It is related that once, after having flewed a pictire of the great Raphael, he exclaimed, Auch' to sono pittore (I also am a painter); but it is not proved that Correggio ever was in Rome; and in Parma and Modena, where, according to D'Argensville, he might have seen works of Raphael, there were none at that time; so that this story wants confirmation. That Correggio, without having seen either the works of the ancient masters, or the chefs-d'œurre of the moderns who preceded him, should have become a model for his successors, by the unassisted energies of his genue, renders him so much the more deserving of our admiration. Three qualities will always be adunired in him-grace, harmony, and a skilful management of the pencil. There is a

peculiar grace in the movements of his figures, and a loveliness in their expression, which takes possession of the soul. These attitudes and movements could not be executed by any artist, without his masterly skill in foreshortening, which not only gives greater variety to a piece, but is also favorable to gracefulness. Avoiding all roughness and hardness, Correggio sought to win the soul by mild and almost effeminate beauties. He strove to obtain this object also by harmony of coloring, of which he may be called the creator. He is unrivalled in the chiar oscuro; that is, in the disposition of the light; in the grace and rounding of his figures, and in the faculty of giving them the appearance of advancing and retiring, which is the distinguishing excellence of the Lombard school, of which he may be considered the head. In his drapery, he calculated with extreme accuracy all the effects of the chiar oscuro. He possessed the power of passing, by the most graceful transition. from the bright colors to the half tints. It was ever his object to make the principal figure prominent, that the eye, after gazing till it was satisfied on the bright colors, might repose with pleasure on the softer masses. He made a skilful use of this art in his Night (la notte di Correggio), which is to be seen in the gallery in Dresden, where there are seven pictures in which his progress in the art may be rec-ognised. That this artist was imbued with the spirit of poetry, is proved by the' allusions which he sometimes introduced into his pictures; for example, the white hare in the Zingara (Gipsy), in Dresden and Naples (a Madonna, which has recerved this name from the Oriental style of the drapery and head-dress); and the goldfinch, in the Morriage of St. Catharine, at Naples. By the nearness of these timorous animals, the idea of the innocence and purity of the persons delineated is strongly represented, and the stillness and repose of the scene is forcibly unpressed on the mind. Among his best pictures, besides the Night, are, the St. Jerome, which has kindled the admiration of **E**everal distinguished painters to such a degree as to render them unjust towards Kaphael; the Penitent Magdalen; the altar-pieces of St. Francis, St. George and St. Schastian; Christ in the Garden of Ohves (ip Spain); Cupid (in Vienna); the fresco painting, in Payma; and above all, the paintings on the ceiling of the cathedral, in the same city. He died in 1534. The story of his extreme poverty, and of his death in consequence of it, has been

long since disproved, yet Oehlenschläger has made it the subject of one of his best tragedies in German and Danish.

Connection, in Spain and Portugal; a magistrate; a police judge with appellate

jurisdiction.

Corrèze; a French department, formed of a part of what was the Lower Li-

·mousin. (See Departments.)

Corridor (Italian and Spanish), in architecture; a gallery or long aisle leading to several chambers at a distance from each other, sometimes wholly enclosed, sometimes open on one side. In fortification, corridor signifies the same as covert-way, which see.

Corrientes, Las; a town of Buenos Ayres, in Santa Fé, at the umon of the Parana and Paraguay, 440 miles north of Buenos Ayres; Ion. 60° 36' W.; lat. 27°

50' S.; population, about 4500.

Corrosives (from corrodere, to eat away), in surgery, are medicines which corrode whatever part of the body they are applied to; such are burnt alum, white precipitate of mercury, white vitriol, red precipitate of mercury, butter of antimony, lapis infernalis, &c.

CORROSIVE SUBLIMATE. (See Mercury.) Corruption of Blood. (See Atlainder.) Corsains (from the Italian corso, the act of running, meursion) the pirates who cruise after and capture merchant vessels. Commonly those piantes only which sail from Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and the ports of Morocco, are called corsairs. Those ships which, in time of war, are licensed by European or American governments to seize upon hostile ships, are called privateers. 'Lord Byron's Corsair, it is well known, derives its name from the charac-

ter of the hero.

Corset; an article of dress, especially intended to preserve or display the beauties of the female form. Its name appears to have been derived from its peculiar action of tightening or compressing the body, and may be compounded of the French words corps and serrer.—The influence of female charms, among civilized people, has, in all ages, been extensive and beneficial, and the sex have always regarded the possession of beauty as their richest endowinent, and thought its acquisition to be cheaply made at any expense To this cause may be attribof fortune. atted the origin of the cosmetic arts, with their countless beneful and innocent prescriptions, for restoring smoothness to the skin, and reviving the delicate roses upon cheeks too rudely visited by sickness or time. The preservation or production of

**1868** beauty of form, as even more admired than mere regularity of features, or from being, apparently, more attainable by art, received an early and ample share of attention, and has largely exercised the ingenuity of the fair aspirants for love and admiration. It is our office now to aid them to the utmost in attaining their wishes, by indicating the true principles upon which the corset should be constructed, and the attentions necessary to secure all the advantages of its application. Of the abuse of this instrument of the toiletJand the dire catalogue of miseries it often occasions, the writer has elsewhere spoken at large, and readers are referred thereto, who are desirous of ascertaining what great evils may flow from an apparently triffing cause.\*—To prevent the form from too carly showing the inroads of time; to guard it from slight inelegances, resulting from improper position, or the character of exterior drapery; to secure the beauteous proportions of the bust from compression or displacement; and, at once, agreeably to display the general contour of the figure, without impeding the gracefulness of its motions, or the gentle undulations caused by natural respiration, are the legitimate objects of the corset. For this purpose, it should be composed of the smoothest and most elastic materials, should be accurately adapted to the individual wearer, so that no point may receive undue pressure, and should never be drawn so tight as to interfere with perfectly free breathing, or with graceful attitudes and movements. obvious that such corsets should be entirely destitute of those barbarous innovations of steel and whalebone, which, by causing disease, have thrown them into disrepute, and which, under no circumstances, can add to the value of the instrument, when worn by a well-formed indi-Such hurtful apphances were vidual. first resorted to by the ugly, deformed or diseased, who, having no natural pretensions to figure, pleased themselves with the hope of being able, by main strength, exerted upon steel-ribbed, whaleboned and padded corsets, to squeeze themselves into delicate proportions. If, however, it be remembered that the use of corsets is to preserve and display a fine figure, not to make one, and that they are to be secondary to a judicious course of diet and exercise, it, will be readily perceived that; such injurious agents are utterly uncalled

\* See an essay on the evils caused by tight a lacing, appended to Godman's addresses delivered on various occasions, Philad. 1829.

for in their composition. By selecting a material proportioned, in its thickness and elasticity, to the size, age, & c., of the wearer, and by a proper employment of quilting and wadding, they may be made of any proper or allowable dogree of stiffness. . If it be then accurately fitted to the shape of the individual, and laced no tighter than to apply it comfortably, all the advantages of the corset may be fully obtained. But such, unfortunately, is not the course generally pursued. Ladies purchase corsets of the most fashionable makers, and of the most fashionable patterns and materials, regardless of the peculiarities of their own figures, which may require a construction and material of very different description. Hence it often happens that females, naturally endowed with fine forms, wear corsets designed for such as are dispropornquately thick or thin, and destroy the graceful case of their movements, by hedging themselves in the steel and whalebone originally intended to reduce the superabundant corpulence of some luxurious dowager. As no two human figures are precisely alike, it is absolutely requeste that the corset should be suited with the minutest accuracy to the wearer; and a naturally good figure cannot derive advantage from any corset but one constructed and adapted in the parimet above indicated. Slight progularities or detects may be remedied or repliered meon-picuous, by indicious application of wadding, or by interposing an additional thickness of the cloth. But it should be remembered that certain changes occur to the female frame, after the cares of maternity have commenced, which are absolutely unavoid-Among these, the general enlargement or filling up of the figure is the most observable, but is never productive of melegance, unless it take place very disproportionately. The under cubagement of the bust and warst is most dreaded, and the attempt to restrain their development by mere force has led to the most permcious abuse of the corset. There is no doubt but that a judiciously fitted corset, whose object should be to support and gently compress, might, in such cases, he advantageously worn; but, at the same time, it must be thoroughly understood, that the corset can only be really be neficial when combined with a proper attention to dict and exercise. Thus many ladies, who dread the disfigurement produced by obesity, and constantly wear the most unyielding and uncomfortable corsets, lead an entirely inactive life, and indulge in rich and luxurous food. Under such circum-

stances, it is vain to hope that beauty of figure can be maintained by corects, or that they can effect any other purpose than that of cramping and restraining the movements, and causing discomfort to the wearer. On the other hand, proper exercise, and abstinence from all but the simplest food, would enable the corset to perform its part to the greatest advantage... There is another error, in relation to corsets, as prejudicial as it is general, and calling for the serious attention of all those concerned in the education of young la-dies. This error is the belief that girls just approaching their majority should be constantly kept under the influence of corsets, in order to form their figures. They are therefore subjected to a discipline of strict lacing, at a period when, of all others, its tendency is to produce the most extensive mischief. At this time, all the organs of the body are in a state of energetic augmentation; and interference with the proper expansion of any one sot is productive of permanent injury to the whole. So for from making a fine form, the tendency is directly the reverse, since the restraint of the corsets detrimentally interferes with the perfection of the frame. The muscles, being cor, pressed and held mactive, nestaer acquire de a due size nor strength; and a stiff, awkward carriage, with a tilm, flat, ungroccful, inclegant person, is the teo trequent result of such injudicious treatment. The corset of a girl, from her 12th or 15th year till her 21st, should be nothing more than a cotton jacker, made so its rather to brace her shoulders lack, but without improper compression of the arm-pits, and devord of all safening, but what is proper to the material of which it is made. At this age, slight imperfections of Sorm, or inelegances of movement, are especially within the control of well-directed exercise and appropriate diet: force is utterly unavailmg, and can have no other tendency than that of causing injury. We may conclude what we have to say on the use of the corret, by imbodying the whole m a few plain, general rules :-- 1st. Corsets should be made of smooth, soft, clastic materials. 2d. They should be accurately fitted and modified to suit the pecuharities of figure of each wearer. 3d. No other stiffening should be used but that of quilting or padding; the bones, steel, &cc., should be left to the deformed or diseased, for whom they were originally intended. 4th, Corsets should never be drawn so tight as to impede regular, natural breathing, as, under all circumstances, the improvement of

lacing. 5th. They should never be worn, either loosely or tightly, during the hours appropriated to sleep, as, by impeding respiration, and accumulating the heat of the system improperly, they invariably injure. 6th. The cornet for young persons should be of the sunplest character, and worn in the lightest and casiest manner, allowing their lungs full play, and giving the form its fullest opportunity for expansion. At this remote period, it is impossible for us to say whether the corset, in some form, might not have belonged to the complex We toilet of the ancient Israelitish ladies. find the prophet Isaiah, in chap. ni, inveighing against their numerous and useless decorations-"the bravery of their tinkling ornaments about their feet, and their cauls, and their round tires like the moon, the chains, and the bracelets, and the mufflers, the bonnets, and the ornaments of the legs, and the head-bands, and the tablets, and the ear-rings, the rings and nose-jewels, the changeable suits of apparel, and the mantles, and the wimples, and the crisping-pms, the glasses, and the fine linen, and the hoods, and the vails." This catalogue, at least, shows that the disposition evinced by the fair sex to adorn their persons, and render them more attractive, is not of modern origin, but most probably originated with our great mother Eve. The earliest and most dehightful record we have of a contrivance like the corset, among Ethnic writers, is Homer's account of the girdle, or cestus, of Venus, mother of the Loves and Graces, which even the haughty Juno is fabled to have borrowed, in order to make a more profound impression upon her rather unmanageable husband, Jupiter. This girdle was invested by the poet with magical qualities, which rendered the wearer aresistibly fascinating:-

"In this was every art and every charm To win the wisest, and the coldest warms Fond love, the gentle vow, the gay desire, The kind decent, the still reviving fire, Persuasive speech, and more persuasive sighs, Silence that spoke, and cloquence of eyes Pops, Hud, book xiv, line 247, &c.

This, after all, we are persuaded, was nothing but such a corset as we have described in the beginning, worn by an elegant form, to which it was accurately adapted. Even Venus herself could not look otherwise than awkward and repulsive in one of the armadillo, shell-like machines, which are sold as fashionable, without regard to their inelegance. The 47 \* .

figure is insufficient to compensate for the costume of the ancient Greek ladies was air of awkward restraint caused by such in every particular, opposed to stiffness or personal restraint; and we find that the cestus, or girdle, to gather the flowing redundance of their robes around the waist, was considered sufficient for the display. of their enchanting forms. The Roman ladies were great adepts in the mysteries, of the toilet, though not possessed of the grace and elegance of the Grecian beauties. We find among them rudiments of the corset, in the bundages which they wore around the chest, for the purpose of preserving the shape of the bosom, and They were displaying it to advantage. commonly made of woollen or linen cloth, and are alluded to, in several instances, by the poets. Thus, in Terence, we find Charea saying to his servant, concerning un unknown beauty who attracted his attention-"This girl has nothing in common with ours, whom their mothers force to stoop, and make them bind their bosoms, with buildages, in order to appear more slender" (Haud similis virgo est virginum nostrarum, quas matres student demissis humeris, rincto pectore, ut gracilæ sient). TER., Eun.-A writer in the French Dictionary of Medical Sciences, in an article . on corsets, which the reader may compare with the present, states that the whaleboned corset, dividing the Ginale form into two parts, is a relic of the ancient German costume, which is still to be seen m some pictures of celebrated masters. We are not, however, prepared to retract our opinion, that such contrivances were first resorted to in cases of deformity; for, on inquiry, we find that the German females, as described by the Roman writers: 5 wore dresses tight to the person, though no mention is made of artificial contrivances to give it a peculiar form. dress of both sexes was similar, consisting of a sagum or cloak clasped at the throat, and a vest or tume which fitted tightly. and showed all the form. Tegumen fuit sagum, fibula si defuisset, spina confertum; locupletissimi distingubantur veste, non fluxu, sed stricta, ar pene singula membra exprimente: idem feminis habitus qui et viris. B. Aubamus, De Morib. etc. omn. Gent. It might prove interesting to inquire into the influence which the costume of the mailed knights, during the age of chivalry, had upon female dress, and whether much of the disposition to display the entire figure, as far as possible, did not arise from this display constantly made by the male sex, in their closely-fitting armor. It would lead us too far, however, to engage : in such an examination here; neither shall

. we attempt to copy M. de Jouy's account of the thoracic corset of the Bayaderes of India (a finely-woven net made of bark, which is worn about the bust, and never . haid saide), as having but little relation to the objects we have in view .- Throughout our observations, we have spoken of form, as not incompatible with correctness of manners. But there is a limit which, we believe, cannot be exceeded without imme-c dinte detrinent to public morals, and pos-, itive offence to deheacy. A spirit of ri-"alry and emulation to excel in dress has frequently betrayed females of unques-, tionable character into wearing costumes which their modesty would shrink from under ordinary circumstances. Perhaps a majority of them, exclusively intent upen their own adornment, do not reflect uson the consequences that may result from their appearance in public. It is certainly exacting a great deal of young men, in the full vigor of life, to expect them to behold, unmoved, the most seductive of forms displayed with all the allurement- of dress, in such a manner as scarcely to leave any thing for the imagination; nor is it surprising, that their passions should be excited, and their principles shaken, when, in the street, in church, and, in short, every where, such exhibitions are constantly placed before deem. It cannot be doubted, but that this cause daily operates to the deterioration of public morals; and it is full time that it should receive the serious attention of pair instand guardians. There was a time when this mode of dressing to display every personal There was a time when this charm was peculiar to an unfortunate class of beings, regarded as lost to all the modesty and dignity of the sex; but it is a melancholy truth, that this distinction between the lost and the reputable no longer exists in our great care, where leaders of fashion and celebrated beauties, claiming the highest rank and character, are most remarkable for the solicitude with which they prepare their lovely per-sons to be gazed at and admired, in all their proportions, by the passing crowdly We should not have alluded to this subje**ct, di**d we not hope that a slight animadversion upon its evil tendency would help to, produce its correction. It has an inimediate influence in lowering the sex in the estimation of men, since it lessens their reverence for beings they would otherwise always look upon with deep respect; and surely the fair sex have not yet to learn, that modest reserve and retiring delicacy are among the most po-

tent auxiliaries of their charms. That they should rush into the extreme we have deprecated, appears to result merely from inuttention; and we sincerely hope that but a short time will chapse before they will strictly respect the boundaries, established by good sense and good taste, tunited with the lovely purity inherent in their sex, remembering the exclamation of the poet—

O! Beauty is a boly thing When wild and customed from the night Of the cross world, illumining One only manson with her light."

Corsica, the third to the northern islands, is separated the northern coast of Sardina by the traits of Bonithere, which are 10 miles in brendth. It is about 50 triles distant from Tuscauy, and 100 from France. It contains 2790 square miles, 18 large towns, of which 4 are seaports (with 3 harbors, capable of containing large fleets), 5 market-towns, 560 villages, including 63 pières, or cultivated valleys, and 180,400 inhabitants. San Fiorenzo, which has fine roads for ships to anchor in, ought to be the capital, and to be fornfied. A range of mountains, with memorous branches, traverses the whole extent of the island, and, near the middle, rises to such an elevation, that the snow remains on the summits during the greater part of the year. The monte Rotondo and the monte d'Oro (from 8 to 9000 feet in height) are covered with perpetual snows This chain of requiring consists, in part, of precipitous tocks, and is, in part, overspread with forests. A number of small rivers, of which the Golo alone is navigable, flow easterly and westerly into the ser. Most of these frequently become dry in summer. The eastern coast is more flat than the western, on which are mest of the inlets of the sea. The climate is mild, since the heat of the sun as rendered less oppressive by the high mounttams and sen breezes. The air, in many parts of the island, owing to the many lakes of stagmant water, is unhealthy; and these districts have, consequently, become desolate. The sod is very fertile, partieufarly in the valleys and near the coast; for which reason the inhabitants, although very mattentive to agriculture, yet reap a sufficient supply of grain for their necessities (with the exception of onts, which are not produced there). The lower order of Corsicans subsist, commonly, on chestnuts, and seldom obtain wheat bread. Wine, which resembles the Malaga and French wines, notwithstanding the negli-

trees and birch-trees, which reach the elevation of from 120 to 130 feet. The breeding of cattle is carried on here to a great extent; but the horse, ass and mule are of a small breed: the homed cuttle are, indeed, large, but very lean; and the wool of the sheep is coarse. The tunny, anchovy, and oyster fisheries afford the inhabitants one of their principal employments. The mountains contain various kinds of minerals; and yet the art of working mines is almost wholly unknown. The iron is celebrated for its good qualitics.-'The Corsicans are still nearly in a state of nature. The majority of them are Italians, and profess the Catholic religion. Industry is unknown. Even the most necessary mechanics are wanting: each one makes for hanself almost every thing he has need of. Their habitations, furniture and clothing are iniserable, and there is a great want of good seminaries for education. Valor, love of freedom, indolence, and desire of revenge, are the characteristics of the Corsicans. As late as the year 1822, the prefect of Corsica, in a paniphlet, urged the French government to legalize the practice of ducling there, because the quarrels of the inhabitants often became hereditary feuds. Until the first Punic war, the Carthagunans were masters of this island. They were succceded by the Romans. In later times, Corsica was, for a long time, under the dominion of the Vandals, and afterwards passed successively into the hands of the Greek emperors and the Goths. In 850, the Corsicans were conquered by the Saracens, who held them in subjection until the beginning of the 11th century; at which time they fell under the domaion of Pisa. In 1284, this island submitted to the dominion of the Genoese, who had before, in 806, subdued it, but were unable to retain possession of it for a long time. Exasperated by the oppressions of the Genoese government during 400 years, the Corsicans took up arms, in 1720, and, since that time, have never submitted to the Genoese. Genoa called in the imperial forces in 1730, and the French, in 1738, to their assistance. In 1736, baron Theodore von Neuhof (see Theodore), a Westphalian, so won the affections of the Corsicans, that they elected him king, under the name of Theodore I. He left them,

gent mode of cultivation, is obtained in abundance. The island also produces for foreign aid. The French, to seek abundance. The island also produces for foreign aid. The French ericusted much flax, and oranges, which form an article of export, in perfection. It is covered with forests of chestnut and oaktrone took place. In 1755, the Corsian trees, great quantities of olive-trees, first appointed Pascal Paoli (q. v/) their results of the product of th general, who conducted their affairs with so much success, that the Gennese, even with the assistance of the troops of the French garrisons (after 1764), were able to return in their possession only a few maritime towns, with the capital, Bastia, and renounced the hope of ever bringing the island again into subjection. They, therefore, in 1768, abandoned these places to-France, by a treaty, which Spinola and the duke of Choiseul concluded at Paris, m which it was stipulated, that the king of France should reduce the island, and govern it until the republic should repay the expenses of the war. This convention was a mere subterfuge to deceive the English, and to save the senate from the reproach of a sale. The French thought that the subjugation of Corsica could be effected by a small military force; but Paoh, in the expectation of assistance from England, made so spirited a resistance, that the expedition soon cost the French 30,000,000 livres, although they had gained no important advantages. The number of the French troops was aft rwards increased, so that they amounted to 30,000 men, under the marshal de Vaux. England still remained mactive; and, in several actions, the Corsicans were so unmindful of their duty, that Paoli, in despar, gave up all thoughts of resistance, and, in June, 1769, fled to England, where he was supported by a pension from the king. A partisan warfare was, . however, maintained in the mountains until 1774. At the time of the French revolution, Corsica was incorporated with France, as a separate department, and sent deputies to the national convention. Paoli now returned to his native land; but the terrousts required his presence at Paris, where he would inevitably have been put to death. He therefore unfurled the banner of the Death's head (the oldy) Corsican arms), and summoned his countrymen to his standard. With the assistance of the English, who landed Feb. 18. 1794, he reduced Bastia, May 22, and Calvi, Aug. 4. The Corsicans submitted to the British sceptre, in a general con-- ' vention of deputies, at Corte, June 18, 1794. Corsica was constituted a kingdom under the government of a viceroy (Elliot); the constitution and laws of England were adopted; and a parliament, such as

Ireland had, was established. But a large called el justicia, selected from persons part of the people were everse to the of the second class, presided over the English, whom they regarded as heretics, and the French party again appeared on the island, in Oct., 1790, under general Gentili. Sickness rendered the situation of the English very critical: their power was still further weakened by the reduction of the neighboring city of Leghorn, by the French, in 1796; and, in consequence, they evacuated Corsica. Since 1811, the island has formed a French department, of which Bastia is the capital. The revenue received from the island by France, in 1821, amounted only to 500,000° francs, while the administration of it costs the crown, yearly, the sum of 3,000,000 francs. (See Memoirs of Napoleon, Fourth Part (London, 1824), by count Montholon; Sketches of Corsica in 1:23, with Sperimens of its National Poetry, by Robert Benson (London, 1825, with 51 copperplate engravings); and Boswell's

Account of Corsica.')
Corso. The Corso is one of the principal streets in Rome, and, like the chief only to pay homege to the king, or the streets in many Italian cities (Florence, for example), derives its name from the horse-races which enliven the evenings of the carnival. The Corso, at Rome, is nearly 3500 paces in length, and is enclosed by high and mostly splendid edifices; but its breadth is not proportionate; so that, in most parts, not above three The lagher carriages can go abreast. class of citizens take the air in carriages, which form a very long row. This evenmg promenade, which, in all large Italian cities is splendid, and is imitated in very small towns (although it may have only a few coaches), attracts great numbers of spectators on foot. The carmval is the gayest of the festivals; and, at this time, the Corso appears in its greatest splendor. (See Gothe's description of the Roman carmval and the Corso.)

sembly of the estates in Spain and Portugal. In Spain, the cortes of Castile, which was composed of the nobility of the first rank, the superior ecclesiastics, the languages of the orders of St. James, Calatrava and Alcantara, and the representatives of certain cities, held the first rank during the time of the united Spainsh monarchy.

CORTLS' The cortes was the old as-

an early times, the king was very dependent upon them; indeed, they were invested with the power of making war, and frequently exercised it in opposition

to the throne. In the original constitution of Arragon, the form of government was very remarkable. A supreme judge,

administration of the government. He decided all questions and disputes between the king and his subjects, and confined the royal power within the constitutional limits. King Ferdinand of Arragon and Isabella of Castile succeeded in rendering themselves independent of the estates (las cortes); and afterwards. when the Castilians dared to resist an unconstitutional tax, at a meeting convoked at Toledo, by Charles, in 1538, the king abolished this assembly of the estates. After this, neither the clergy nor nobility were assembled: deputies from 18 cities were sometimes, however, convened, but this only in case subsidies were to be granted. Philip II restrained the liberties of the Arragonese in 1591. After the Spanish war of succession, Philip V deprived those provinces which had ad-hered to the Austrian party of the privileges that still remained to them. From that time, the cortes were convened prince of Asturias, or when a question respecting the succession to the throne was to be determined. But when Napoleon attempted to extend his influence over Spain (see the articles Ferdinand VII, and Spain since 1808), he convoked (June 15, 1808) a junta of the cortes at Bayonne. In then last session (June 7, 1812), a new constitution was adopted by them. The 9th article regulated the powers and duties of the cortes, and, provided that they should consist of 25 archbishops, 25 nobles, and 122 representatives of the people. Napoleon afterwards attempted, by offering to restore the cortes to their ancient unportance, to gain over the Spanish nobility, and, through them, the people, but failed, (In regard to the new cortes in Spain and Portugal, see those aracles.) In 1828, don Miguel assembled the cortes of Portugal, in order to be acknowledged by them, and to give his usurpation an appearance of legitimacy.

Cortez, Fernando, the conqueror of Mexico, born in 1485, at Medelin, in Estremadura, went to the West Indies in 1504, where Velasquez, governor of Culm, gave him the command of a fleet, which he sent on a voyage of discovery. Cortex quitted San-lage, Nov. 18, 1518, with 10 vessels, 600 Spaniards, 18 horses, and some field-pieces. He landed in the gulf of Mexico. The sight of the horses, on which the Spaniards were mounted; the movable fortresses, in which they had crossed the ocean; the iron which covered

them; the noise of the cannon; -all these objects alarmed the natives. Cortez'entered the town of Mexico Nov. 18; 1519. 'Montezuma, the sovereign of the country, received him as his master; and the inhabitants, it is said, thought him a god and a child of the sun. He destroyed the idols in the temples, to whom human sacrifices were offered, and placed in their room images of the virgin Mary and of the saints. In the mean time, he made continual progress towards getting possession of the country, forming alliances with several caciques, enemies to Montezuma, and assuring himself of the others by force or stratagem. On a general of Mon-texama attacking the Spaniards, in obedience to a secret order, Cortez repaired to the imperial palace, had the commander and his officers burnt alive, and forced the emperor, while in chains, to acknowledge, publicly, the sovereignty of Charles V. The unhappy monarch added to this homage a present of a large ' quantity of pure gold, and a number of precious stones. But the jealousy of Velasquez was so much excited by the deeds of his representative, that he sent an army against him. Cortez, reinforced by fresh troops from Spain, advanced to meet it, gained over the soldiers who bore arms against him, and, with their assistance. again made war with the Mexicans, who had also revolted against their own emperor, Montezuma, whom they accused of treachery. After Montezuma, who had hoped to restore tranquility by showing Immself to the multitude, Ind fallen a victum to their rage, Guatimozin, his nephew and son-in-law, was acknowledged as emperor by the Mexicans, and gained some advantages over the Spaniards. He defended his crown during three months, but could not withstand the Spanish artillery. Cortez again took possession of Mexico, and, in 1521, the emperor, the empress, the ministers, and the whole court, were in his power. The unhappy Guatimozin was subjected to hornd cruelties to make him disclose the place where his treasures were concealed, and was afterwards evecuted with a great number of his nobles. The court of Madrid now became jealous of the power of Cortez, who had been, some time before, appointed captain-general and governor of Mexico. Commissioners were sent to inspect and control his measures; his property was seized; his dependants were imprisoned, and he repaired to Spain. He was received with much distinction, and returned to Mexico with an increase of titles, but a diminu-

tion of power. A vicercy had charge of the civil administration, and Cortez was intrusted only with the military command and the privilege of prosecuting his dis-, coveries. The division of powers proved a constant source of dissension; and, though he discovered the peninsula of California in 1536, most of his enterprises were frustrated, his life imbittered, and he returned again to Spain, where he was coldly received and neglected. One day, having forced his way through a crowd round the carriage of his king, and put his foot on the step to obtain an audience, Charles coldly inquired who he was. "I am a man," replied Curtez, "who has gained you more provinces than your father left you towns." He passed the remainder of his days in solitude, and died Dec., 1554, near Seville, in the 63d year of his age, leaving a character uninent for bravery and ability, but infamous for perfidy and cruelty. .

CORTON, a fortified town of Tuscary, contains 7 churches (including the cathedral) and 12 convents. It is a place of great autiquity. Population, 4000. It lies

45 miles S. E. Florence?

Corton, properly Pietro Berretini, a painter and architect, was born in 1596. He was commonly called Pictro di Cortona, from the name of his native town, Cortona in Tuscany. He acquired the first rudi-, ments of his art under his father, Giovanni, who was also a plainter and architect, and afterwards studied with Andreas Commodi and Baccio Curpi at Rome. At the commencement of his studies, his awkwardness was so remarkable, that his fellow students called him ass's head Nevertheless, he devoted himself to the study of the antiques, and of the great masters, Raphael, Caravaggio and Michael Angelo, and unexpectedly made his appearance as an artist, with the Rape of the Sabines. The Birth of Christ, in the church of Our Lady of Loretto, established his reputation. His painting, on the ceiling of the large saloon in the Barberini palace, representing the Triumph of Honor, is a very happy effort. Mengs declares it one of the grandest compositions ever execlited by a painter. He afterwards travelled through Lombardy, the Venetian states and Tuscany, where he painted the ceilings of the Palazzo Pitti in Florence, and thence returned to Rome During this journey, he was constantly employed as a painter and architect. He was subsequently attacked by the gout, and could not, in consequence, ascend the stagings: he therefore employed himself in the execution of easel pictures, which,

although of less value than his larger works, are held in great estimation: they are very rare. Alexander VII made him a knight of the order of the golden spur, as a reward for the embellishment of the colonnade of the church Della Pace. He died in 1669, and obtained an honorable burial in the church dedicated to St. Luke, at Rome, where he had immortalized himself by the design of the altar of St. Cortona sacrificed truth to Martun. pleasing effect. This object, however, he did not attain. The defects of his drawing, which is rather heavy, were redeemed. by the fertility of invention, the attractive charms of his young female figures (although it is objected to them that they are too umform), and the fresh coloring of his harmomous tints. This last quality is an excellence peculiar to hun, and which no other artist has attained in an equal degree, either before or since his time.

Corundum, sometimes called also, from occasionally reddish; more rarely blue, yellow and black. It is translucent or opaque. Its specific gravity varies diom 3.975 to 4.161. In hardness, it ranks next to the diamond. It occurs, crystallized, in the form of the regular six-sided prism, and also in acute and obtuse hexacdral pyramids. It is also found granular and compact. It consists almost wholly of pure clay, or alumine, sometimes containing 4 or 5 per cent, of silex or lime. The blue variety, when trensparent, goes by the name of the supplies; the rose red or the violet, which is sometimes chatoyant, is called the Oriental ruby. Both of these rank, as gems, next to the diamond. They are found in the saids of rivers, and among alluvial matter in Ceylon. The common corundum is found in a grande rock in India, also at Mont St. Gothard, and in Piedmont. A granular variety of corundum, centaming considerable iron, is called epery. It is found in the island of Naxos, in rolled masses, at the foot of primitive mountains. Its powder is well known in commerce, and greatly valued as a polishing substance.

CORUNNA, a scaport of Spain, in the province of Galicia, on the north-west coast, on a peninsula at the entrance of the bay of Betanzos. The streets of the upper town are narrow and ill paved. The lower town stands on a small tongue of land, and has tolerably broad and clean streets. The chief objects of interest are the royal amenal, and an ancient tower, admired for its elevation and solidity.

48 14 6 The harbor is spacious and secure, and is protected by two castles. About three miles from the harbor is a light-house. In 1809, the British were attacked at this place, previous to embarking, and their general, sir John Moore, was killed. Population, 4000: 30 miles N. W. Lago. Lon. 8° 20' 23" W.; lat. 43° 23' 32" N.

Conver (French, from cura vice, care of. the road); the obligation of the inhabitants of a certain district to do certain lahor, for the feudal lord or the sovereign, gratis or for pay. As the name shows, correce originally meant compulsary labor on roads, bridges, &c., but it is applied also to other feudal services. Generally, of course; the payment for such services. is much below the wages of ordinary labor. In some cases, however, the corrées have been considered as a privilege, and people have insisted on their right to perform the services, and to receive the pay for them; as the tenth part, for threshits hardness and peculiar lustre, adamaning, &c. In some parts of Germany, they tine spar, is of a grayish, greenish tint, still exist. In Prussia, they were abolish ed under Hardenberg's administration. Ir France, the revolution extirpated this relic of the feudal times.

> Converts. (French); a vessel of war having fewer than 20 guns.

Convey, in the Prussian province of . Westphalia, 15 leagues S. E. of Minden, famous, in former times, as Corbeia Nova . a Benedictine convent on the Weser, which, with the convent of Fulda, was one of the first centres of civilization in ' Germany. It was built in the sixth century. The history of this interesting convent is important with reference to the history of the civilization of the middle ages. (See Theatrum illustr, Viror. Corbria Saronica, Jena, 1686, 4to.; and Lehmtz's Introduct. ad Script. Brunsvie., vol. 1, . page 26 et seq.) Wittekind, the Instoriographer of the convent, and many other learned men, were educated here. From Corvey proceeded Ansgar, the "apostle of the North." In 1794, Corvey was made a bishopric. In 1802, the bishopric was abolished, and Corvey given to the prince of Nassau and Orange; in 1807, it was assigned to Westphalia; in 1815, to Prussia; in 1822, it was made a mediatised principality (106 square miles, 10,000 inhabitants). The magnificent cathedral contains many monuments. In 1819, Paul Wigand published a history of the abbay of Corvey.

Corvisart, Jean Nicolas, baron, a distinguished French physician, was born at Dricourt, in the present department of the Ardennes, Feb. 15, 1755. His father, an invincible inclination for medical studies led him into a different career, in which he was soon distinguished for his intelligence and his extensive learning. He · succeeded Rochefort as physician to the hipital de la charité, and was the first' professor of internal clinics in France. parent kind of silk, much valued by the sul (1802), and afterwards to the emperor (to whom he was faithfully attached, but with whom he had not according to the Mémoire of him by baron Cuvier, any political influence, as some have asserted), professor in the collège de France from 1797, member of the imperial institute, Corvisart's great ment was not overlooked after the restoration. place of honorary member of the royal academy of medicine was conferred on him just before his death, which happened Sept. 18, 1821. Corvisart felt that the most distinguished practitioner of medicine has not performed his whole duty to his science, unless he leaves some memorial of his experience. He translated some important works, with commentaries, and was the author of several valuable treatises. His two principal works are a Treatise on Diseases of the Heart, and a Commentary on the work of Auenbrugger, a German physician, published in 1763, at Vienna. In 1770, it was translated into French, but so much forgotten, that Corvisart says, "I could have sacrificed Auenbrugger's name to my vanity, but I did not choose to do so: I only wish to revive his beautiful discovery." His place in the French academy of sciences has been filled by M. Magendie, and his chair in the college of France had been occupied by M. Hallé for several years before the time of his death.

CORYBANTES (Curctes, Idei, Dactyli, among the Romans, a peculiar order of priests called Galli) are said to have derived their origin from Corybas, son of Cybele and Jasion, who appointed them to perform religious service to his mother, the goddess Cybele, in the island of Crete and in Phrygia. According to much more ancient traditions, they were descendants of Vulcan. The story of their clashing together instruments of forged metal, when Rhea gave them the infant Jupiter, in order to prevent Saturn from hearing his cries, seems to have some connexion with this tradition. According to Apollodorus, the Corybantes were sons of Apollo and Thalia, according to others, of Apollo and Rhetia.

procureur to the parliament of Paris, Cos, or Coos; an island in the Ægman wished to educate him for the law; but sea (now Stanchio or Stincho), on the coast of Asia Minor, opposite the towns of Halicarnassus and Cnidos (95 square miles, 4000 inhabitants); the land of Apelles and Hippocrates. Here was a celebrated temple of Æsculapius. Cos was manufactured a fine, semi-trans-

> Cosel; a small, yet not unimportant forfified town, on the left bank of the Upper Oder, in Upper Silesia (197, houses and 3600 inhabitants); first fortified by Frederic the Great, after the conquest of Silesia. It has been several times besieged 'uı vain.

Cosen, countess of; one of the many mistresses of the prodigal Augustus II, king of Poland and elector of Saxony. She was the wife of the Saxon minister Hoynib, who, well knowing the king's disposition, kept her far from court; but, on one occasion, when excited by wine, he praised her so much to the king, that the latter ordered her to be brought to Dresden. She was soon divorced from Hoymb, and appeared at court as the countess of Cosel, the mistress of the king. A palace was built for her, still called the Coscl palace, which was preemment for magnificence and luxury. The furniture alone cost 200,000 Saxon dollars (150,000 Spanish). It must be remembered that the king had no income from Poland; on the contrary, the royal dignity was a source of great expense to the elector; thus the lattle electorate had to support, unaided, the enormous extravagance of its ruler. For nine years, the countess succeeded in preserving the king's favor, and exercised an arbitrary sway in affairs of government. At last, she fell into disgrace, and was dismissed from the king's presence. She retired into Prussia, and was afterwards arrested She retired at Halle, at the request of Augustus, and carried to Stolpe, in Saxony, where she remained imprisoned 45 years, and died 80 years old. So much power had she over the king, when in favor, that dollars and florins were actually coined, bearing the stamp of the royal arms in conjunction with those of the countess. She is one among many similar instances of the advantages which legitimacy brings in its. train, subjecting nations to the control of profligate monarchs, who are governed by equally profligate mistresses.

Cosenza (anciently Cosentia); a city of Naples, capital of Calabria Citra, situated on seven small hills, at the foot of the

Appenines; 145 miles S. E. Naples; lon. 1627 E.; lat. 39 27 N.; population, 7980. The metropolitan is the only church within the walls; but there are three-parish churches in the faubourgs. There are 12 convents. The environs are beautiful, populous and well cultivated, producing abundance of corn, fruit, oil, wine and silk. This town was anciently the capital of the Brutii, and a place of consequence in the second Punic war. Cosenza has frequently suffered from earthquakes, particularly in the year 1638.

Convertes (from Logato, I ornament, beautify); means for preserving or increasing the beauty of the human body. Every one knows that such means are used by the most savage, as well as the most civilized, nations; that cosnicties have afforded a rich harvest to charlatans; and that it is very difficult to find good ones

among the numberless bad ones.

Cosmo I of Medici. (See Medici.) Cosnogony (from the Greek κόπως, the world, and you, generation), according to its ctymology, should be defined the origin of the world uself; but the term has become, to a great degree, associated with the numerous theories of different nations and individuals respecting this event. Though the origin of the world must necessarily remain forever concealed from human eyes, there is, notwithstanding, a strong desire in the breasts of mortals to unveil it; so that we find hypotheses among all nations, respecting the beginning of all things. We may divide these hypotheses into three classes:-1. The first represents the world as eternal, in form as well as substance. 2. The matter of the world is etérnal, but not its form. 3. The world had, a beginning, and shall have an end. -I. Ocellus Lucanus is one of the most ancient philosophers who supposed the world to have existed from eternity Aristotle appears to have embraced the same doctrine. His, theory is, that not only the heaven and earth, but also ammate and manimate beings, in general, are without beginning. His opinion rested on the belief, that the universe was necessarily the eternal effect of a cause equally eternal, such as the Divine Spirit, which, being at once power and action, could not remain idle. Yet he admitted, that a spiritual substance was the cause of the universe; of its motion and its form. 'says positively, in his Metaphysics, that God is an intelligent Spirit (10%), incorporeal, eternal, immovable, indivisible, and the Mover of all things. According to this great philosopher, the universe is less

a creation than an emphation of the Deity. Plato says the universe is an eternal image of the immutable Ides, or Type, united, from eternity, with changeable matter. The followers of this philosopher both developed and distorted this idea. Ammonius, a disciple of Procliss, taught, in the sixth century, at Alexandria, the cocternity of God and the universe. Modern philosophers, and also ancient ones (c. g., Xenophanes, according to Diogenes Laertius), went further, and taught that the universe is one with the Deity. Parmenides, Melissus, Zeno of Elea, and the Megaric sect, followed this doctrine.—II. The theory which considers the matter of the universe eternal, but not its form, was the prevailing one among the ancients, who, starting from the principle that nothing could be made out of nothing, could not admit the creation of matter, yet did not believe that the world had been always in its present state. The prior state of the world, subject to a constant succession of uncertain movements, which chance afterwards made regular, they called chaos. The Phœnicians, Babylomans, and also Egyptians, seem to have adhered to this theory. The ancient poets, who have handed down to us the old mythological traditions, represent the universe as springing from chaos, without the assistance of the Deity. Hesiod feigns that Chios was the parent of Erebus and Night, from whose umon spring the Air (Aith) and the Day ('Helea). He further relates how the sky and the stars were separated from the earth, &c. The system of atoms is much more fa-Leucippus and Democritus of Abdera were as inventors. The atoms, or indivisible particles, say they, existed from eternity, moving at hazard, and producing, by their constant meeting, a variety of substances. After having given rise to an immense variety of combina tions, they produced the present organiza tion of bodies. This system of cosmogony was that of Epicurus, as described by Lucretius. Democritus attributed to atoms form and size, Epicurus added weight. Many other systems have existed, which must be classed under this division. We only mention that of the Stoics, who admitted two principles, God und matter, in the abstract, both corporeal, for they did not admit spiritual beings. The first was active, the second passive. -III. The third theory of cosmogony makes God the Creator of the world out of nothing. This is the doctrine of the Etruscans, Druds, Magi and Bramins.

Before idolatry was introduced into China, the people worshipped a Supreme Being, Chang-Ti, the Mover and Regulator of the universe. Anaxagoras was the first among the Greeks, who taught that God created the universe from nothing. The Romans generally adopted this theory, notwithstanding the efforts of Lucretius to establish the doctrine of Epicurus. The beginning of Ovid bears a striking resemblance to the beginning of Genesis. Clement of Alexandria therefore thinks that the Pentateuch was known in Greece and Rome before the time of Christ. It is not necessary, however, to adopt this conclusion, for the two systems of cosmogony might have had a common origin. The Indian cosmogony also bears much resemblance to that of Moses. It is well known to every reader, that the Mosaic cosmogony belongs to the class we are now describing. It is distinguished by its great simplicity. The rationdists, as they are called in Germany, regard it as an Asiane tradition, and not as a revelation. Some of the most important sources of information respecting the different systems of cosmogony, besides the book of Genesis, are the works of Hesiod, Diogenes Laertius, Nonnus of Panopolis, Eusebius, Plulo the Jew, Pliny and Diodorus. A very learned and ingenious treatise on the Mosaic history of creation is contained in a work full of learning-Mythologus oder gesammelte Abhandlungen über die Sagen des Alterthums von Philipp Buttmann, vol. 1, Berlin, 1828.

Cossacks (Casacks): the tribes who inhabit the southern and eastern parts of Russia, Poland, the Ukrame, & c., guarding the southern and eastern frontier of the Russian empire, and paying no takes, performing, instead, the duty of soldiers. Nearly all of them belong to the Greco-Russan church. Their internal adminis-tiation, however, is independent of the Russian government. They form a pulitary democracy. They must be divided into two principal classes, both on ac-count of their descent and their present condition—the Cossacks of Little Russin (Malo-Russia), and those of the Don. Both classes, and especially those of the Don, have collateral branches. those of the Don, who are the most civilized, are descended the Volgaic, the Terek, the Grebeskoi, the Uralian and Siberian Cossacks. To the other race belong the Zaporogians or Haydamaks, who are the wildest and most unrestrained. Writers are not agreed as to the origin of this

people and of their name. Some derive both races from the province of Casachia. so called by Constantine Porphyrogenes tes. In the Turkish, cazak signifies a robber; but, in the Tartar language, it signifies a soldier lightly armed, for rapid motion. Since the Cossacks came from the plains. beyond the Volga, they may be the remains of the Tartar hordes who settled there at different times. Some suppose them to be of Russian origin. language is properly Russian, although, in consequence of their early wars with the Turks and Poles, they have adopted . many words from these people. It is probable that both races of the Cossacks are descended from the united Russian adventurers, who came from the provinces of Novogorod. Their object was to collect booty in the wars and feuds with the Tartars, on the frontiers of the Russian? empire. As they were useful in protecting the frontiers, the government granted them great privileges; and their numbers rapidly increased, more especially as grants of land were made them. Thus their power was augmented, and they became, by degrees, better organized and finally established. Their privileges, however, have been very much limited since the year 1804. In the war of 1538, 3000 Co-sacks of the Don made their first campaign with the Ryssians in Livonia. They then conquered Siberia, repulsed the Tartars from many Russian provinces, and assisted in defeating the Turks. Durmg the frequent rebellions of the Cossacks of the Don (the last of which was conducted by the formidable Pugatscheff's quarrels arose among them, and the great family became divided into several parts. Thus a branch of the great tribe of the Don, consisting of about 7000 men, in order to escape the punishment of their offences, retired, in 1577, to the Kama and to Perm, and afterwards to the Oby. (See Siberia and Stroganoff.) They drove out the Woguls, the Ostracs and Tartars, who were settled there. Their numbers having been much reduced by these contests with the inhabitants, and their leader: being no longer able to maintain his conquest, they placed themselves under the protection of the Russian government, and obtained assistance. This branch of the Cossacks has since spread over all Siberia. The strength of the Cossacks is variously estimated. Archenholz makes the nunber of warriors 700,000; but not half this number is in actual service, and two thirds of those are employed only in the domestic service, and never enter Europe,

so that not many more than 100,000 men are at the disposal of the Russian government, in case of a war in Europe. Dur-, ing the seven years' war, the Russian army included but 10,000 Cossacks. According to the regulations of 1804, two out of three regiments do duty at home, and the third on the frontiers. But they are all hable to be called into the field, and they then receive pay and rations from the emperor. They form, in general (particularly those of the Don, who are the most independent), the irregular flying 'cavalry of the Russian army, being divided into separate troops. The Cossacks of Lattle Russia are more disciplined; they may almost be called regular troops. The Co-sacks have no nobility among them. All are equal, and all may, without degrading themselves, alternately command and obey. Their officers are chosen by them from among themselves, only the commander-in-chief must be approved by the government. He cannot be displaced except by its consent. The commanders are always in the pay of the crown, but the common Cossacks receive pay only while they are on duty. Their regements (pulks) are from 500 to 3000 strong, according to the size of the circle, and are commanded by a chief (hetiman, q. v.: in their language, alaman). The commander of the whole corps is also called heltman. The officers under the colonel are without rank (with the exception of those of some particular regiments, who have an equal rank with the officers in the army), and, in case of necessity, may be commanded by the inferior officers of the regular army. Each Cossack is hable to do duty from the age of 18 to 50, and is obliged to furnish his own horse, and to be clothed in the Polish, or Oriental fashion, although the texture and quality of his garments are left to hunself. Their principal weapon is a lance from 10 to 12 feet in iength athey have also a sabre, a gun or a pair of pistols, as well as a bow and arrows. The lances, in riding, are carried upright by means of a strap fastened to the foot, the arm, or the pommel of the saddle. Those who use bows carry a quiver over the shoulder. The kantschu, also, which is a thick whip of twisted leather, serves them for a weapon against an unarmed enemy, as well as for the management of then horses. Though httle adapted for regular movements, they are very serviceable in attacking baggage, magazines, and in the pursuit of troops scattered in flight. Their horses are mostly small, and of poor appearance;

but they are tough and well broken, and so swift, that, when they do not move in compact bodies, and carry little or no baggage, they can travel, without much difficulty, from 50 to 70 miles a day, for several days in succession. Each pulk has . two or more silken banners, usually adorned with images of the saints. Cossacks fight principally in small bodies, with which they attack the enemy on all sides, but principally on the flanks and in the rear, rushing upon them at full speed, with a dreadful hurrah, and with levelled lances. If they succeed in breaking through the enemy by a bold attack. they drop their lances, which are drugged along by the strap, and, serzing on their sabres and pistols, do great execution. If they meet with opposition, and find it impossible to penetrate, they immediately retreat, hasten to some appointed place, form anew, and repeat the attack until the enemy is 'put to flight, when they bring destruction on the scattered forces. In 1570, they built their principal stanitza and rendezvous, called Tscherkask, 70 wersts above Azoph, on some islands in the Don, 1263 miles from Petersburg, now containing 2950 houses and 15,000 inhabitants, the seat of the alaman. It may be called the Tartar Venice, for the houses rest on high wooden piles, and are connected with each other by small bridges. When the river is high, which is from April to June, the city appears to be floating on the water. Their churches are nehly adorned with gold and precious stones. There is a regular theatre here. There are also many private libraries, and a school where French, German, geometry, history, geography, natural philosophy, &c., are taught. A great deal of business is done by the Greeks, Armemans, Jews, &c. As the city is rendered unhealthy by the overflowing of the island on which it stands, they have lately built New Tscherkask, on an arm of the Don, about four inles from the present city, to which all the inhabitants of the old city will remove, so that, perhaps, in 50 years, no vestige of the old town will remain.

Cossé, Charles de, more known by the title of marshal de Brissac, was son of René Cossé, who was lord of Brissac in Anjou; and chief falconer of France. He served with success in the Neapolitan and Piedmontese wars, and distinguished himself as colonel in the battle of Perpignan, in 1541. The first noblemen of France, and even the princes, received their military education in his school, while he com-

manded the French light cavalry. When the emperor Charles V attempted to be-· siege Landrecy, in 1543, Brissac repulsed him three times, and united himself, in spite of the superior numbers of the enemy, with Francis I, who lay, with his army, near Vitry. This monarch folded him in his arms, allowed him to drink out of his cup, and created him a knight of his order. After other great actions, he rose to the rank of grand master of the artillery of France, and Henry II sent hun as ambassador to the emperor, for the purpose of negotiating a peace. Here he proved himself a good diplomatist, and obtained for his services the office of governor of Piedmont, and the baton of marshal of France, in 1550. He afterwards returned to France as governor of Picardy, and rendered that province important services. Brissac was small, but very well made. The ladies called him the handsome Brissac. It is said that the duchess of Valentinois regarded him with particular favor, and that Henry II appointed him heutenant-general in Italy merely tiom Brissac died at Pans, Dec. 31, jealousy. 1563.

Costa Furtado de Mendoça, Hippolyto Joseph da; a Portuguese gentleman, distinguished for his talents, learning and adventures. He was tried and imprisoned at Lisbon, by the inquisition, for the pretended crime of fice-masomy. The following are said to have been the cucumstances of his escape from captivity :-The door of the cell in which Da Costa was confined opening into a hall, which was the centre of the prison, he had opportunities for remarking that the daily labors of his jailors terminated with throwing a bunch of keys on a table where a lamp was left burning. By patience and perseverance, though conscious of hability to espial through apertures in the walls and ceiling of his cell, he succeeded in forming, out of an old pewter plate, a key which would unlock his door. Upon making his final attempt, the bunch of keys proved to be a proper collection for threading the entire labyrinth of the prison, not excepting the outer gate. Besides the keys and lamp, there was a book, containing, among other records, the minutes of his own examinations. This he took with him, and, carefully closing and lockmg every door after him, he made his way, without interruption, to the outside of the prison walls; and, after remaining six weeks secluded and disguised in the neighborhood, he took his departure from Portugal, and reached England in safety,

carrying with him the book and keys of the inquisitors, as trophies of his success. M. da Costa was the proprietor of the Correio Braziliense, a monthly magazine in the Portuguese language, printed in London, and discontinued a short time before his death, which took place in the beginning of 1824.

Costa Rica; the most eastern and most southern province of Guatimala; between lat. 8° 20′ and 11° 27′ N., and lon. 8° 27′ and 85° 49′ W.; bounded N. by Nicaragua, E. by the Spanish Main, S. E. by Veragua, and W. and S. W. by the Pacific occan; 150 miles in length, and nearly as much in breadth. It is full of deserts and forests, thinly peopled, and ill-cultivated. A great part of the inhabitants live independent of the Spaniards. The principal commerce consists in cattle, hides, honey and wax. It has ports in each sea. Carthage is the capital.

Costa Rica; a river of Guatimala, which runs into the Escondida, five miles

from St. Carlos, in Nicaragua.

Coster, Laurens (called Jansoens, that is, son of John), a wealthy citizen of Haerlem, was born in that city in 1370 or 1371. He was a member of the chief council in 1418, and by turns performed the duties of a judge and a treasurer. In 1421, or, 'according to some, in 1309, he was appointed to the office of sucristan (Koster) of the parochal church at Haerleys, and continued in this station; and from this office, which, at that time, was very honorable, he derived his surname. He died. probably, of the contagious disease which raged, in the latter part of 1430, in Haerlein. This is all that the contemporary city records have preserved of his history. More than a hundred years after his death, in the middle of the 16th century, traces of a tradition appeared, which assigned to the city of Haerlem the invention of the art of printing. At this time, Hadrian Junius produced (in a work cutiled Batavia, written between 4562 and 1571, but not published till 1588, after his death), from the verbal information of some aged people, who, again, derived their knowledge from others, a complete history of the invention of the art of printing, in which Coster acted the chief part. During his walks in a wood near Haerlem (as Jumins relates), he carved letters, at first for his amusement, in the bark of beech-trees. He persevered in these experiments, till he had finished entire lines, and finally proceeded so far as to cut out whole pages on the sides of boards. With blocks of this sort, he effected the impression of

the Spegel onzer Behoudenisse. After this, he improved his mode of printing by casting lead or pewter types. But a person by the name of John, whom he had employed as an assistant, stole his printing apparatus one Christmas night, and fled with it first to Amsterdam, and then to Cologne and Mentz, at which last place this theft occasioned the general diffusion of the art invented by Coster. In Holland, the people are so firmly convinced of the truth of this story, that a statue in honor of Coster was erected in 1622. His house, which fell down in 1818 through age, was shown with the greatest respect; and, in 1740, the jubilee of his invention of the art of printing was celebrated. This celebrauon was repented in 1823, the justice of the claim of the Dutch being considered to be established by Meerman's Origines Typographica (1765), and Koning's Verhandeling over het Oorsprong der Bockdrukkunst (1816). The examination of . the subject, in the last essay in the Hermes, by Ebert (No. xx), leads us to this result; that Coster, at a time at least as early as that of the invention of the art by the Germans, employed himself as experiments, the design and result of which was the invention of the art of printing. (See Ebert's article Buchdruckerkunst in the Encyclopædia by Ersch and

COSTUME, in the fine arts; the observand e of propriety in regard to the person or thing represented, so that the scene of action, the habits, arms, proportions, & c., are properly imitated. The peculiarities of form, physiognomy, complexion; the dress, ornaments, habitations, furniture, arms, &c., should all be conformable to the period and country in which the scene is laid. The rules of costume would be violated by the introduction of a palmgrove and a tiger in a scene in Russia, by the representation of American Indians in turbans, or of Romans with cannons at the siege of Carthage, of an inhabitant of the East seated at table with a kinfe and That the ancient painters, and even celebrated masters of the modern European schools, are often chargeable with deviations from propriety in regard to costume, is not to be demed; but nowhere have they been so glaring as on the stage, where Greek, Turkish and Peruvian princes used to make their appearance in long velvet mantles, embroidered with gold; Merope and Cleopatra were equipped in hooppetticoats, Medea and Phadra in French head-dresses; peasant-girls were dressed out irf whale-bone, and heroes emerged

from the battle in stiff coats, not a fold of which was disordered. Le Kain and mademoiselle Clairon, it is said, were the first who introduced propriety of costume on the stage, under the patronage of the count de Lauraguais; but they excluded only the grosser absurdities: Scythians and Sarmatians were clothed in tiger-skins. Asiatics in the Turkish dress; but the old costume was retained in other respects. The scenery of the stage was as incongruous as the dresses. It is not long since Semiramis issued from a palace adorned with Commthan columns, and entered a garden in which a whole American Flora was blooming; or perhaps she was scated on a throne, overshadowed with a canopy à la Polonaise. Those by whom she was surrounded were dressed in the Turkish style; while a master of horse, in the costume of the age of chivalry, offered her his hand. In Germany, the stage, at that time, was no better in this respect. It is not very long since the companions of Theseus made their appearance there with large perikes; and, in the Clemenza di Tito, Roman soldiers marched on the stage with stiff boots, and stiffer The Germans, however, first queues. made a thorough reform in these absurds ties, and the national, now royal, theatre, in Berlin, in point of scenery and costume, is at present the most correct in the world. In France, Talma reformed the Parisian What he did in this respect for the drama, David (who had, however, a predecessor in Viga) effected for painting, and his school is entitled to the honor of having strictly observed propriety of costume. The question, To what extent should truth be sacraticed to beauty? is answered in the best manner by an article on the subject of dramatic representation, in Müllner's Almanae for Private Theatres (Almanach für Privatbuhnen, in two volumes, 1818). There, poetical corregmess is distinguished from historical, and the cases are pointed out, in which the latter must yield to the former, partly on account of the harmony that must necessarily exist between the external appearances and the spirit of poetry, and partly for the sake of intelligibleness, and avoiding what would be offensive to the less informed spectators. That art may be permitted to idealize costume as well as language, cannot be demed. No perfect work on costume has as yew appeared. Dandré Bardon, in his Costumes of the most Ancient Nations, did not confine himself to the true sources of information. The Traité des Costumes of Lenz is a very

feeble production, and Martini's Commentaries have very little improved it. Spalart's Essay on the Costume of the most celebrated Nations of Antiquity, of the Middle Ages, and of Modern Times (Versuch über das Costume der vorzüglichsten Völker des Alterthums, des mittlern Alters und der neueren Zeiten, published by Ignarius Albrecht, Vienna, 1796—99, 3 vols.) is superior, but not entirely free from faults. The Recurils des Costumes Antiques, by Rocheggiani and Willemin, are more useful productions, but not sufficiently comprehensive. A new Essay on Antique and Modern Costumes, by Grrom, appeared in Italy, in 1819; and an Illustration of the Egyptian, Grecian and Roman Costume, in forty Sketches, with Descriptions, was published by Thomas Baxter, London, There is often no means of information for the artist but the original sources. For the costume of the ancients, he must have recourse to the engravings of antiquities; for the modern costume, he must resort to essays on painting in different ages, monumental figures, and treacostume of foreign nations, he may derive information from books of travels: histories, antiquities and geographies, are indispensable guides in these inquiries. costumes of modern times and foreign nations are described in the Costumes civils actuals de tous les Peuples connus, by St. Sauveur; and in a large work entitled Collections of Costumes of various Nations (London, 1800 et seq ); and in several pubheations on the costume of the theatre, VIZ., Costumes et . Innales des grands Theatres de Paris; Costumes of the Imperial Court Theatre in Vienna (Costumes des K. K. Hoftheaters in Wien), with colored plates (Vienna, 1812 and 1813); Costumes of the National Theatre at Berlin (Theatercostumes des berliner nationaltheaters) from 1816 to 1823-the old ones were given from 1789 to 1813.

Cote Droit, and Coté GAUCHE (French; signifying the right and left side in the French chamber of deputies). It would be, perhaps, desirable, in all national assemblies, that the seats of the menibers should be determined in such a way (either by lot or some other means) that the members of the same party should not be allowed to cluster together, and split up the assembly into hostile masses. Regulations of this kind are actually established in the congress of the U. States, and in most of the German states; but in the

house of commons, indeed, the first seats on the right of the speaker are appropriated to the members from London; but they occupy them only at the opening of parliament, and afterwards resign them to the ministers, about whom their adherents arrange themselves, on this side of the . house. The members of the opposition party take their stations on the opposite seats. In France, this party is always arranged on the left side. The most yolent members of the national convertion occupied the highest benches on this side, and obtained, from this circumstance, the name of the Mountain. The more moderate members, and the partisans of government, took their places in front, on the lower seats, which were called the plain, the belly, and the morass. At the present time, the different parties in the French chamber of deputies arrange themselves in the same manner. The munsternal party take their places in the centre (see Centre), the most violent members of the different parties at the extreme right and left, while the more moderate occupy the tises on costume; and in regard to the intervening spaces. The right side of the chander was the strongest from 1815 to A majority was secured to the munistry by linear; of new laws, regulating the electrons, which gave to the great landholders alone the right of encosing a portion of the deputies, and of assisting in the election of the remainder. operation of these laws has been increased by the reduction of land taxes, and by the exertic to an illegal influence at the elections is the ministers. In 1828, a reaction tooks is to, and a majority of liberal men were thousen to spite of ministerial influence. In and beginning of 1830, the left side obtains a fromplete victory, in consequence of 'o rch the chambers were prorogneti. The left side accuse the ministerial party of a design to increase the power of the church, and restore to the priests the influence which they exercised in ages of ignorance; to redstablish the feudal privileges of the nobility, and to encumber landed property with inalienability, indivisibility and the feudal tenures. They also accuse them of striving to exclude the commons from the higher offices of honor, and even of a desire to overthrow the charte, which, according to the right side, can be taken away by the same power which granted it. On the other hand, the right side accuse their opponents of aiming to make the present constitution of France more democratical, and to cramp the pow-English and French parliaments, there are ver of the king. They consider them, in no rules of this nature. In the English fact, as wishing to dethrone the Bourbons.

48 \*

In speaking of the political sentiments of a member of the house of deputies, it is generally said, he suts on the right side, on

the left side, in the centre, & c. .

CÔTE-D'OR; a chain of mountains in Burgundy, so called from the abundance of excellent wine which they yield. Their height varies from 1400 French feet to 1600. The chain runs from N.N.E. to S. S. W., and is about 36 leagues long, beginning at the plateau of Langres, and extending to the sources of the Bourbance and the Dheune.

Côte-p'Or; a department of France; formerly a part of Burgundy. (See De-

nortment.\

Coterie; a French word, now much used in English society. Originally, coterie was a commercial term, signifying an association in which each member furnished his part, and received his proportion of the profits, or hore his proportion of the loss. Thence it was used for small societies, in which certain individuals are in the habit of meeting, and each contributes his share of conversation and entertamment. A colorio consisting of ladies and gentlemen of talent, vivacity and agreeable manners is one of the finest productions of modern society. It is from coteries that we derive a large stock of the most entertaining and instructive matter in the numberless French memous.

Côtes-nu-Nord: a Fiench department, formerly the northern part of Upper

Brittany.

Côtes, Vin Di ; a Bordelais wine. (See

Bordelais.)

CÖTHEN, ANHALT; one of the Anhalt principalities. (See Anhalt M 41 the possessions of the prince of confort-Cothen amount only to 300 square which, containing 4 towns and 33,500 furne atants, furnishing 320,000 guilders of revenue, and burdened with 1,200,000 guilders public debt. The prince and his wife—a natural daughter of Frederic William II of Prussia—embraced the Catholic religion in Paris, Oct. 24, 1815, which caused some religious excitement in Germany. Cothen, the capital, has 700 houses and 5500 inhabitants.

COTHURNUS, with the ancients; a kind of shoes, laced lingh, such as Diana and her nymphs are represented as wearing. They are still worn by the hunters in Italy. They were particularly in use among the Cretans. Galen and Pollux describe them as reaching up to the middle of the calf, and laced tight by means of thongs, to protect the foot and ankle, without obstructing freedom of motion. The tragic

actors also wore them, perhaps, at first, as commemorative of the expeditions of Bacchus; and, at a later period, in order to give additional height to the actors who played the part of heroes. Hence cothurnus is sometimes used figuratively for tragedy. The cothurnus used for this purpose differed from the hunting cothurnus in this respect, that it had a sole of cork.

at least four fingers thick.

Corry, Charles, counsellor and almoner of the king, and member of the French academy, was born at Paris, in 1604. He is indebted for his notoricty, in a great measure, to the satires of Boileau. He possessed a knowledge of theology and philosophy, understood the Hebrew and Syriac languages, and studied the Greek authors so diligently, that he could repeat large portions of Homer and Plato by heart. Among his poems are many which have much ment. It has often been supposed, that Boileau introduced the name of Connanto his saures, because it furnished a convenient thyme, and Moore refers to this in his Lafe of Byron, vol. 1. But Borleau had good reasons for complaining of Cotin, who had represented him, at the hotel Ramboudlet, as a dangerous man. The richcule of Boileau exasperated Cotia still more, and he attempted every means of silencing him. His influence at court, his title and wealth, appeared to give him the means of effecting this object; but, unluckily, his folhes drew upon him a new enemy in Mohere, who, in his Femmes Savantes, introduced him on the stage, and exposed him to iidicule, under the name of Trissotin. The sonnet to the princess Urama was composed by Coun; and he engaged in a dispute respecting this poem with Menage, in the presence of a select society, in which the disputants used the s same kind of language which Mohere places in the mouths of Trissoun and Vadrus. Cotin died in 1682. His Œurres Mélées appeared in 1659, at Paris, and his Œurres Galantes, in 2 vols., in 1665.

Cotopaxt; the most remarkable volcanic mountain of the Andes, in Quito; 35 miles S. S. E. of Quito, N. N. E. of Chimborazo; lat, about 0° 40' S. It is the most beautiful of the colossal summits of the Andes. It is a perfect cone, which, being covered with an enormous layer of snow, shines with dazzling splendor at the setting of the sun, and stands forth in bold relief from the azure heavens, <sup>1</sup> This covering of snow conceals from the eye of the observer even the smallest inequalities of the ground. No point or mass of rock penetrates the coating of snow and ice, or

breaks the exact regularity of the conical The crater is surrounded by a small circular wall, which, when viewed through a telescope, appears like a parapet. Its height above the sea is 18,898 feet. It is the most tremendous volcano in Quito, and its explosions have been most disastrous, spreading destruction over the surrounding plains. Remarkable erup-tions took place in 1698, 1738, 1742, 1744, 1766, and 1768; and one in 1803. In 1698, the eruption destroyed the city of Tacunga, with three fourths of its inhabitants, and other settlements. In 1738, the flames rose nearly 3000 feet above the brink of the crater; and in 1744, its roarings were heard as far as Honda, on the Magdalena, 600 miles distant. With respect to the cyplosion of 1803, Humboldt observes, "At the port of Guayaquil, 52 leagues distant, in a straight line, from the crater, we heard, day and night, the noise of this volcano, like continued discharges of a battery; and we distinguished these tremendous sounds even on the Pacific ocean." In viewing this volcano, every thing contributes to give it a most majestic and awful character. The pyramidal summits of Illinissa; the -nowy ridges of the other mountains; the singular regularity of the inferior line of snow, and the hixurance of the great plains, offer an unparalleled assemblage of the grand and picturesque features of nature. Humboldt found it difficult to ascend the mountain, m 1802, as far as to the limit of perpetual snow, and he pronounces it impossible, by any human art, to reach the summit.

Cotta, J. G., baron of Cottenberg; the most emment living bookseller of Germany. Mr. Cotta, whose resources, in his youth, were but scanty, studied theology, and was, for some time, a private instructor. In 1798, he established, in connexion with some other persons, the Allgemeine Zeitung (q. v.), which soon became, through his efforts, the best political paper of Germany. Mr. Cotta then became a publisher of books; and his establishment still continues under the firm of J. G. Cotta' sche Buchhandlung, and is distinguished, notlike those of his contemporaries, Crapelet and some others—for the peculiar beauty and correctness of the publications which proceed from it, but for the great number, among which have been many of the best works of German literature. But the circumstance which probably renders Mr. Cotta's press unique, is the number of periodicals that he has succeeded in establishing, which embrace a very extensive circle of scientific and literary subjects.

His Allgemeine Zeitung is a daily political paper; Das Morgen-Blatt is a daily paper, principally devoted to entertaining matter; Das Kunst-Blatt treats of the fine arts; Das Austand gives information only respecting foreign countries; Das Inland is chiefly for Bevaria; Das Polytechnische Journal is devoted to the useful arts; Die Politischen Annalen is made up of long political treatises and documents; Das Literatur-Blatt is a daily paper containing short critiques, somewhat similar to the London Literary Gazette, but its contents are more valuable. All these different publications are carried on in Stuttgard, Tubingen and Augsburg. Some years since, Mr. Cotta purchased the barony of Cottenberg, in the kingdom of Würtemberg, whereby he became entitled to a seat in the chamber of the nobles of that state, where he has shown himself disposed to liberal sentiments. His Allgemeine Zeitung has likewise this character, as much as is possible in a country in which the conductor has been obliged already, three times, to change the place of its publication, in order to evade a strict censorship. It never contains matter professedly editorial. Mr. Cotta's wealth is very great, and he applies it libe; dly in procuring valuable contributions to the various journals pubhshed by him, which contain, for instance, much original correspondence from foreign countries.

Cottin, Sophie Ristaud, better known by the name of madame Cottin, the author of several novels and works of entertainment, was born in 1773, at Tonnems, in the department of Lot and Garonne, married, at the age of 17, a banker at Bordeaux, and went soon after to Paris. where, in a few years, she lost her husband. To reheve her sorrow, she gave herself up to intellectual pursuits. divert her thoughts, she wrote down the fancies and reflections that strongly occupred her active mind, without supposing that they would be of interest or value beyond the circle of her immediate friends. In the case with which she expressed her thoughts, she discovered a talent, which even those most intimate with her had not hitherto appreciated. 'Her first attempts were small poems, and a history of 200 pages. One of her friends having occasion for 50 louis-d'ors, in order to leave France, from which he was banished, madame Cottin, to assist the unfortunate man, published her Claire d'Albe, but kept her name a secret. The necessity which she felt of pouring out her feelings determined her to appear again as an authoresa,

and she produced Malvina, Amélie de Mansfield, and Elisabeth, or the Exiles of Siberia. The eloquence and fervor with which she expresses the most secret feelings of the heart have been much admired, especially by her own sex. Her circumstances enabled her to devote the profits of her works to benevolent objects. A painful disorder prevented her from finishing a religious work which she had begun, and another on education. latter was the only one of her works for which she was anxious to gain a favorable reception with the public; for, singular as it may seem, she disapproved, in general, of women's appearing as authors. She died, after three months' suffering, Aug. 25, 1807. Her works are contained in the collection Œurres complètes de Madame Cottin, Paris, 1806.

Corron is a soft, vegetable down, which is contained in the seed-vessels, and envelopes the seeds, of the cotton plant (gossypium herbaccum), which is cultivated in the East and West Indies, North and South America, and Egypt; in fact, in most parts of the world which possess a sufficiently warm climate. It is an annual plant. It grows to a considerable height, and has leaves of a bright green color, marked with brownsh vents, and each divided into five lobes. The flowers have only one petal in five segments, with a short tube, and are of a pale-yellow color, with five red spots at the bottom. The cotton-pods are of some what triangular shape, and have each three cells. These, when ripe, burst open, and disclose their snowwhite or yellowish contents, in the midst of which are contained the seeds, in shape somewhat resembling those of grapes. The fibres of cotton are extremely fine, delicate and flexile. When examined by the imcroscope, they are found to be somewhat flat, and two-edged or triangular. Their direction is not straight, but contorted, so that the locks can be ex-tended or drawn out without doing viol lence to the fibres. These threads are finely toothed, which explains the cause of their adhering together with greater facility than those of bombax and several apocynea, which are destitute of teeth, and which cannot be spun into thread without an admixture of cotton. In the Southern States of the American Vinon, the cotton cultivated is distinguished into 3 kinds the nankeen cotton, so called from its color; the green seed cotton, producing white cotton with green seeds; and the black seed cotton. The two first kinds grow in the middle and upper country, and are

called short staple cotton; the last is cultivated in the lower country, near the sea, and on the isles near the shore, and produces cotton of a fine, white, silky appearance, very strong, and of a long staple. Cotton was found indigenous in America. There are two machines for cleansing cotton from the seeds; these are, the roller-gin and the saw-gin. The essential parts of the first are two small cylinders, The revolving in contact, or nearly so. The cotton is drawn between the rollers, while the size of the seeds prevents them from passing. The saw-gm, inventor by the Whitney, is used for the black-seed cot whitney is used for the black-seed cot The saw-gin, invented by M1. ton, the seeds of which adhere too strongly to be separated by the other method. It is a receiver, having one side covered with strong parallel wires, about an eighth of an inch apart. Between these wires pass a number of circular saws, revolving on a common axis. The cotton is entangled in the teeth of the saws, and drawn out through the grating, while the seeds are prevented, by then size, from passing. The cotton thus extricated is swept from the saws by a revolving cylindrical brush, and the seeds fall out at the bottom of the receiver. Mr. Whitney is an American. Arkwright, in England, is highly celebrated for the machinery which he has invented for the spinning of cotton. North and South America, Egypt and India, produce most of the cotton consumed, and the greater part is manufactured in England and the U. States. The export of cotton from the U. States, between October, 1828, and September, 1829, to Great Britain, amounted to 498,001 bales; the amount exported to France, was 184,821 bales; and to the other parts of Europe, 66,178; total, 749,000. The crop in 1824-5 was 569,259 bales; that of 1625—6 was 720,027 bales; of 1826—7, 957,251; of 1827—8, 720,593; of 1828—9,870,415. Of this last crop, 130,000 bales are estimated to have been manufactured in the U. States. The whole amount of cotton imported into Great Britain, in 1824, was 149,380,122 pounds; in 1825, was 228,005,291; in 1826, was 177,607,401; in 1827, was 272,448,909 pounds. The value of cotton manufactured goods exported in 1824, according to the official rates, was £27,171,555; m 1825, £26,597,574; in 1826, £21,445,742: of cotton twist and yarn, in 1824, according to the official rates, £2,984,344; m 1825, £2,897,706; in 1826, £3,748,526.

Cotton Manufacture. The increase of the cotton manufacture, during the last half century, is one of the most interesting events in the history of commerce. The

carliest seat of the manufacture, known to us, was Hindostan, where it continues to be carried on, by hand labor, in all its original simplicity. Such, however, has been the power of improved machinery, in its recent application to it, that Europe and America are now pouring back upon Asia her original manufacture, and under- selling her in her own markets. first impulse in these improvements was derived from the inventions of Hargreaves and Arkwright, between 1768 and 1780. The improved machinery of which we speak consists of the cylindrical carding engine, by which the fibres of cotton are disentangled and separated from each and delivered in a uniform, continuous roll; the drawing and roving frames, by which these rolls are repeatedly doubled and extended, until the fibres are drawn out into a regular and perfectly horizbital position; and the spinning frame, the most important quality of which is the causing the roving or preparatory yarn to pass through two or more sets of rollers, revolving with different velocities, by which the thread, at the moment of being twisted, is drawn out to any desired degree of tenuity; the rollers performing the delicate office of the thumb and finger. In addition to these, the power-loom was brought into general use about the year 1816, by which the laborious process of weaving is converted into the mere superintendence of two, and even three, of these machines; each one producing from 30 to 40 yards of cloth per day. In the printing of calicoes, equally important improvements have been made. Instead of the tedious process of impressing patterns from wooden blocks, the most deheate patterns are transferred from Copper cylinders with astonishing rapidity; two, and even three, colors are, in this way, imprinted at one operation. In the richer and more expensive patterns, however, block-printing continues to be used, in addition to the impressions from the cylenders, ? The science of chemistry has contributed its share of improvement in the new process of bleaching by chlorine, and in unnumerable new combinations of colors. In its present state, the entire manufacture, in its varions departments, presents a greater combination of human skill than can be found in any other art or manufacture. In 1781, the quantity of cotton wool imported into Great Britain, was 5,000,000 pounds; in 1820, it cannot be estimated at less than 210,000,000; and, allowing 20,000,000 for export, 190,000,000 pounds will remain as

the consumption of the kingdom. Of this, upwards of 40,000,000 pounds are exported in yarns, valued at £3,500,000 sterling. The value of all other manufactures of cotton, exported in 1828, was £13,545,638. Some estimates of the annual value of the cotton manufactured in Great Britain have been as high as £36,000,000 sterling; but this would seem to be an exaggeration. In the early periods of this manufacture, the profits must have been enormous. It has built up the cities of Liverpool and Manchester in England, of Glasgow and Pausley in Scotland, and has been estimated to give employment to a million of persons. After a long period of success, other, and from all foreign substances, finterrupted only by occasional and temporary fluctuations, the production, both of the raw material and of the manufactured article, seems to have outrun the consumption of the world, in that eventful year of overtrade, 1825. A long stagnation succeeded in 1826; an unprecedented reduction in the prices of cotton manufactures, and in the value of property engaged in it, spread a wide and general distress, throughout the districts devoted to the manufacture, which continued, with greater or less intensity, through the years 1828 and 1829 Although there is no diminution in the quantity of cotton consumed in Great Britain, there is abundant evidence, that neither the capital nor labor employed in it is now fecciving (1830) a fair remuneration. The fall in the prices of cotton manufactures, from 1814 to 1826, would seem, by a comparison of the real or declared value of the exports with the official value, rated by a uniform list, to have been 55 per cent. The greatest export in value, of any one year, was in 1815, having exceeded £19,000,000 sterling.—In the U. State-, the progress of this manufacture has partaken of the characteristic energy and vigor of the country. It is only since the introduction of the power-loom, that it can be considered as having been established on a permanent and useful basis: the scarcity of skilful weavers, and the high prices of weaving, had been found serious obstacles to its success, which was secured by this invention. The first successful experiment with this instrument was made at Waltham, Mass., in 1815, apphed to the coarser fabries; but so rapid has been the extension of the manufacture, that, besides furnishing the U. States with its full supply of the more staple productions, and a considerable export of coarse goods, the beautiful prints of Manchester and Glasgow are inntated in great perfection; and more than half the consump.

tion of the country, in this important branch, is supposed to be now furnished The actual exfrom native industry. tent of this manufacture, in the U. States, at the present time (1830), is matter of estimate only; a very moderate one is believed to be the consumption of 35,000,000 pounds of cotton per annum, manufactured into 140,000,000 of yards of cloth, of which about 10,000,000 are exported, and upwards of 20,000,000 printed; the value, \$12 to 14,000,000; and employing a capital of \$25 to 30,000,000. Several improvements, originating in the country, have been introduced into the manufacture, and the whole process is believed to be performed to as great advantage as in any part of the The descriptions of cottons exworld. ported are mostly of a coarse fabric, which are taking the place of the cottons of Inda, and are known abroad by the name of American domestics. They have been extensively imitated by the English, and a competition is going on, between the manufacturers of the two countries, for the possession of the foreign markets. It is thought, that the possession of the raw material on the spot, and the use of the comparatively cheap moving power of water, instead of steam, with the proxim-ity of the great markets of South America, are advantages, in favor of the U. States, more than sufficient to counterbalance some disadvantage in the higher cost of machinery, and, as is commonly sup-posed, in the higher wages of labor. But the labor in the cotton mills producing these goods, being wholly performed by females, has been ascertamed not to be dearer than the same description of work in England; and, as it is not easily applicable to any other branch of industry, it would seem not improbable, that this country will be the future source of supply, in coarse cottons, for foreign markets. The coarse cottons, for foreign markets, great profits attending this manufacture have attracted to it, in a very short period, a great amount of capital, and produced a violent competition: the consequence has been a sudden reaction and great depression of prices, producing considerable embarrassment in those establishments operating with inadequate capital, and unable to meet the shock of impaired credit. But, although individuals may meet with heavy losses by imprudent speculations,, there is no reason to distrust the eventual success of the manufacture, which must soon find relief, under the increasing consumption of the country. The price of coarse cottons, in 1829, was less than one third of the price in 1815. The largest

establishments for the manufacture of cotton, in the U. States, at present (1830), are at Dover, N. H.; Lowell, Mass.; Pawtucket, R. I.; Patterson, N. J.; and in the neighborhood of Philadelphia and Balti-The increase of the production more. of the raw material is even more wonderful than that of the manufacture. 1791, the whole export of the U. States was 64 bags, of 300 pounds each; the average of 1826, 7, and 8, is 235,000,000 pounds; and, if we include that consumed in the country, the average production is 270,000,000 pounds, valued at \$27,000,000, the price having fallon to about one third of that of 1815. This reduction of price seems destined to cause a still further immense extension of the manufacture, which is rapidly taking the place of hempen sailcloth, and the different de-scriptions of coarse linens. In fact, this valuable material, at once delicate, strong and cheap, seems equally well adapted to every fabric, from the gossamer-like mushn of the ball-room to the coarse garment of the Negro slave.—As the subject of cotton manufactures is one of so much interest, we shall here give a detailed account of the process, and mention the most important machines by which each part is performed After the cotton has been gimed (see the first part of this article), and picked or batted, that is, beat up and separated into a light, uniform mass, the first operation of the manufacturer is carding, which serves to equalise the substance of the cotton, and dispose its fibres in a somewhat parallel direction. 'The carding-engine consists of a revolving cylinder, covered with cards, which is nearly surrounded by a fixed concave framing, also haed with cards, with which the cylinder comes in contact. From this cylinder, called the breaker, the cotton is taken off by the motion of a transverse comb, called the doffingplate, and passes through a second carding in the finishing cylinder. It is then passed through a kind of funnel, by which it is contracted into a narrow band or sliver, and received into tin cans, in the state of a uniform, continued carding. The next step in the process is called drawing the The machine employed for this cotton. purpose, called the drawing-frame, is constructed on the same principle as the spinning-frame, from which the idea of it was taken: To imitate the operation performed by the thumb and finger in handspinning, two pairs of rollers are employed; the first pair, slowly revolving in contact with each other, are placed at a little distance from the second pair, which revolve

with greater velocity. The lower roller of each pair is furrowed, or fluted longitudinally, and the upper one is covered with leather, to give the two a proper hold of the cotton. If a carding be passed between the first pair, it will be increly · compressed by the pressure of the rollers; but, if it be then passed through the second pair, moving with twice or thrice the velocity of the first, it will be drawn twice or thrice smaller than it was when it entered the first rollers. The relative velocity of the two pairs of rollers is called the *draught* of the machine. Several of these drawings are then passed together through rollers in the same manner, plying (coalescing) as they pass, and forming a single new drawing. drawing and plying are several times repeated, and have the effect of arranging all the fibres of the cotton longitudinally, in a uniform and parallel direction, and doing away all the inequalities of thickness. In these operations, the cotton receives no twist. Roving the cotton, which is the next part of the process, gives it a slight twist, which converts it into a soft and loose thread, called the roving. The machine for performing this operation is called the roving-frame or double speeder. In order to wind the roving upon the bobbins of the spindles, in even, cylindrical layers, the spindle-rail is made to rise and fall slowly, by means of heart-wheels in the interior of the machine. And, as the size of the bobbins is augmented by each layer, the velocity of the spindles and of the spindle-rail is made to diminish gradually, from the beginning to the end of the operation. This is effected by transmitting the motion to both, through two opposite cones, one of which drives the other with a band, which is made to pass slowly from one end to the other of the cones, and thus continually to alter their relative speed, and cause a uniform retardation of the velocity. The bobbins are now transferred to the spinning-frame, which has a double set of rollers, like those described in the account of the drawing and rovingframes, and which, operating in the same manner as in those machines, extend the rove, and reduce it to a thread of the required fineness. The twist is given to this thread by flyers, driven by bands, which receive their motion from a horizontal fly-wheel, or from a longitudinal cylinder The yarn produced by this mode of spinning is called water twist, from the circumstance of the machinery, from which it is obtained, having been, at first, generally put in motion by water.

In 1775, the mule-jenny or mule was invented by Samuel Crompton, of Bolton. The spindles are mounted on a movable carriage, which recedes when the threads are to be stretched, and returns when they .. are to be wound up. The process of stretching is intended to produce threads of the finest kinds, and consists in forcibly stretching portions of yarn, several yards long, in the direction of their length. The purpose of it is to reduce those places in the yarn which have a greater diameter than the rest, so that the size and twist of the thread may become uniform through-Here ends the process of spinning, and that of weaving begins.—The following progress of a pound of cotton may ' be not uninteresting to our readers. appeared, originally, in the English Monthly Magazine. "There was sent to London lately, from Paisley, 'a small piece of ' mushn, about one pound weight, the history of which is as follows: The wool came from the East Indies to London; from London it went to Lancashire, where it was manufactured into yarn; from Manchester it was sent to Paisley, where it was woven; it was sent to Avrshire next. where it was tamboured; it was then conveyed to Dumbarton, where it was handsewed, and again returned to Paisley, whence it was sent to Glasgo; and finished, and then sent, per coach, to London. It may be reckoned about three years that it took to bring this article to market, from the time when it was packed in , India, till it arrived complete, in the merchant's warchouse, in London: whither it must have been conveyed 5000 miles by sea, nearly 1000 by land, and have contributed to reward the labor of nearly 150 persons, whose services were necessary in the carriage and manufacture of this small quantity of cotton, and by which the value has been advanced more than 2000 per cent."

Corros, Charles, a burlesque poet of the 17th century, born in 1630, received his education at Cambridge, after which he travelled in France. Not being of a very provident disposition, he was subject to frequent embarrassments, and, at one time, was confined in prison for debt. He died at Westminster in 1687. His works are numerous, including Scarronides, or Virgil Travestie, being the first book of Virgil's Æneid, in English burksque, and n translation of Montaigne's Essays. After the death of Cotton, a volume was published, entitled Poems on several Occasions (8vo.), which contains some pieces of considerable ment, chiefly of the light

and humorous kind. He also translated the *Horaces*, a tragedy of Corneille; and his pen was often employed to relieve his

pecuniary difficulties.

Cotton, sir Robert Bruce; a celebrated English antiquary and collector of literary relics. He was born at Denton, in Huntingdonshire, in 1570, and, after having been at Westminster school, completed his studies at Trinity college, Cambridge. He then settled in London, devoting much of his time to antiquarian pursuits, and employing himself especially in collecting ancient deeds, charters, letters, and other manuscripts of various kinds, illustrative of the history of England. He was one of the earliest members of the antiquarian society; and he not only promoted the general objects of that learned association, but also assisted with his literary treasures, as well as with his purse, Speed, Cainden, and other writers on British archæology. In the reign of James I, he was knighted; and, on the institution of the order of baronets, he was promoted to that rank. He died in May, 1631. He is chiefly memorable as the founder of the valuable Cottoman library, which collection was, long preserved at Cotton-house, Westminster. In 1700, it was appropriated to the public use; and, after having been partly de--stroyed by fire in 1731, it was removed, in 1753, to the British museum, where it now remains.

COTTONIAN LIBRARY, in London, was collected by sir Robert Bruce Cotton (q.v.), secured to the public by a statute, in 1700, after which it was several times removed, and, after being injured by conflagrations and political disturbances, was at last placed in the British museum (q. v.), where it remains.

COTTUS. (See Briareus.)

Cotys, or Cotytto; a goddess of debauchery, worshipped at Corinth and Chios. Her festival was called Cotyttia, or Cotytis, and was celebrated during the night (in what way is easily to be inferred from the character of the goddess), at Athens, Corinth, Chios, in Thrace, &c. Cotys is prohably the same with the goddess of the Edom in Thrace.—Κοτνος θιασώτης, follower of Cotys; a common term for a profligate person.

COUCHING; a surgical operation, that consists in removing the opaque lens out of the axis of vision, by means of a needle

constructed for the purpose.

Coucy, Renaud, Castellan of, was the hero of a tragical occurrence, which has been often celebrated in ancient ballads and songs. He is supposed to have been the nephew, or at least the kinsman, of Raoul, lord of Coucy, who accompanied Philip Augustus to the Holy Land, and with whom he has been sometimes confounded. A manuscript in French verse, . in the royal library at Paris, entitled Romance of the Castellan of Coucy, and the Lady of Fayel, written about 1228, and a chronicle on the same subject, in 1380, in. the possession of Fauchet, relate the following story: Renaud, castellan of Concy, was smitten with the charms of Gabrielle de Vergy, lady of Aubert de Fayel. The castle of Fayel was situated not far from Coucy, in the neighborhood of St. Quen-Renaud threw himself at the feet of tin. Gabrielle, confessed his passion, and was at first repulsed, but not forever. lovers often saw each other in private. Assurances of the most ardent love, and unceasing precautions against the jealousy of the husband, gave occasion to the songs of Renaud, of which a collection has been preserved to us, breathing the language of the most glowing passion. The happiness of the parties was interrupted by the summoning of Concy to the crasade. embarked with Richard of England at Marseilles. With him he fought at Caserea, and conquered at Ascalon. But, in defending a castle where the king wasquartered, he was wounded by a poisoned arrow. The wound proved incurable, and Renaud requested leave to return to his country, which was granted. But, in a few days, he felt sensible that his end was approaching: and, giving to his faithful squire a silvir casket, with the presents of his mistress, "Take it," he said, "and guard r well; when I am dead, enclose my heart in this casket, and bear the whole to the lady of Fayel." He also added a letter, which he wasthardly able to sign. He died, and his faithful squire hastened to the castle of Fayel. He was surprised by the lord of the castle, who, suspecting his appearance, ordered him to be searched, and found on him the gifts and the letter of Coucy. Burning with rage, he determined on revenge. He ordered the heart to be served at table. It was done, and Gabrielle ate of it. "Have you found the dish to your taste, madain?" he asked. "Excellent!" answered his victim. doubt it not," he replied; "it must have been a dainty morsel for you, for it was the heart of the castellan of Coucy." In fearful confirmation of his words, he gives her the letter of the dying Renaud. unhappy woman, after this horrible meal, refused all sustenance, and died of voluntary starvation. The love-songs of the

castellan of Coucy are in the Mémoires condition. historiques sur Baoul de Coucy, Paris, 1781 inflammati (in the ancient dialect, with a translation subjoined, and old music). Uhland has continues made this story the subject of a fine ballous, or abs lad.

 Coven, in medicine; a deep inspiration of air, followed by a sudden, violent and sonorous expiration, in a great measure involuntary, and excited by a sensation of the presence of some irritating cause in the lungs or windpipe. The organs of respiration are so constructed, that every foreign substance, except atmospheric air, offends them. The smallest drop of water, entering the windpipe, is sufficient to produce a violent coughing, by which the organs labor to expel the irritating substance. A similar effect is produced by mhaling smoke, dust, &c. The sudden expulsion of air from the lungs is produced by the violent contraction of the diaphragm and the muscles of the breast and ribs. These parts are thus affected by a sympathy with the organs of respiration, which sympathy springs from the connexion of the nerves of the different parts. The sensation of obstruction or irritation, which gives rise to cough, though sometimes perceived in the class, especially near the pit of the stomach, is most commonly confined to the tracker, or windpipe, and especially to its aperture in the throat, termed the glottis. Yet this is seldom the seat of the irritating cause, which is generally situated at some distance from it, and often in parts unconnected by structure or proximity with the organs of respiration. Of the various irritations which give use to cough, some occur within the cavity of - the chest; others are external to that cavity; some exist even in the viscera of the pelvis. Of those causes of cough which take place within the chest, the disorders of the lungs themselves are the most common, especially the inflammation of the mucous membranes, which excites the This catarrhal cough, or common cold. disease is generally considered unimportant, particularly if there be no fever connected with it. But every cough, lasting longer than a fortnight or three weeks, is suspicious, and ought to be medically treated. Another common cause of cough, which has its seat in the lungs, is inflainmation of those organs, whether in the form of pleurisy or peripueumony (q. v.) These deseases do not differ very essentially, except in violence and extent, from the acute catarrh, but are more dangerous, and more rapid in their progress, and the constitution is excited to a highly febrile

Even after the acute state of inflammation may have subsided, a cough, attended with extreme danger, sometimes continues to be excited by collections of pus, or abscesses, which ensue in the substance of the lungs, and either terminate in consumption, or suffocate the patient by suddenly bursting; more rarely the pus is discharged gradually from a small aperture, and the patient recovers. In such cases, the fever, originally acute, is converted into a hectic, with daily chills, succeeded by heat and flushing of the face, night sweats, and emaciation. Another frequent origin of cough is the rupture of some of the blood-vessels of the lungs, and the consequent effusion of blood into the cells, which is expelled by the cough that its irritation excites, constituting what is technically termed hæmoploe, hæmoplysis, or spitting of blood. When the vessels of the lungs are thus ruptured, they seldom, heal readily, but degenerate into ulcers, which pour out a purulent matter; and, by this discharge, the vital powers are gradually worn down and destroyed. This is a common source of consumption, or philisis pulmonalis. (See Consumption.) A cough is excited, and the same tatal disorder is also induced, by the existence of tubercles in the lungs. These are lattle tumors, which gradually inflame and ulcerate, and produce the same consequences as the ulcerations from homoptysis. Culculi, or stony concretions, are sometimes formed in the lungs, and the irritation which they produce necessarily exertes a cough, which is liable to terminate in consumption. There is yet another source of irritation within the lungs, of which cough is an attendant, namely, an effusion of scrum into the parenchymatous substance of the lungs, or into the cellular membrane, which connects the cells and blood-vessels together. This has been called anasarca pulmonum, or dropsy of the lungs, and is marked by great difficulty of breathing, with a sense of weight and oppression in the chest, occasioned by the compression of the air-cells and vessels by the accumulated water; hence also great irregularity of pulse, frightful dreams, imperfect sleep, &c., are among its symptoms. Inflammation of the heart, and of the pericardium, or membrane surrounding it, is also accompanied by cough, and other symptoms not easily distinguishable from those of pleurisy and peripueu-Where a cough is excited by disorders of parts external to the cavity of the chest, it is generally dry, as the irritating cause is external, and not any obstructing ,

matter in the lungs themselves. Disorders of the viscera of the abdomen, especially of those which lie in contact with the diaphragm (the muscular curtain separating the cavities of the belly and chest), frequently induce a cough. A short, dry cough invariably attends inflammation of the liver, whether acute or chronic, and accompanies the various tubercular and other obstructions in that organ. Hence inflammation of the liver is not unfigquently mistaken for inflammation in the lungs; and, in some of the chronic diseases of the liver, the cough is occasionally complained of as the most urgent symptom. The presence of pain in the right side, shooting up to the top of the shoulder, the dryness of the cough, and pain, enlargement, hardness, or uncasiness on pressure below the ribs of that gide, will afford the best means of distinguishing whether a disease of the liver is the origin of the cough. Disorders of the stomach are, also, often accompanied with a cough of the same dry and teasing nature, especially when that organ is over distended with food, or is in the opposite condition of emptiness. A short gough is, therefore, a frequent symptom of indigestion and hypochondrasis, or of that weakness of the stomach which is popularly termed bilious. In short, there is scarcely any one of the viscera in the cavity of the abdorners, the irritation of which in a state of disease, has not excited cough. Disorders of the spleen, panerens, and even the kidneys, have all given rise to this symptom; and external tumors, attached to them, have had the same effect. Any distension of the abdomen, which, by its pressure upwards, impedes the descent of the diaphragm, and consequently the expansion of the lungs, occasions cough. Thus, mathe ascites, or dropsy of the belly, the water-in typipaintes, the air—in corpulency, the far in the omentum—and, in pregnancy, the gravid uferus,-all have the effect of exciting cough in many constitutions. The variety of causes from which coughs may arise, must convince every reader of the absurdity of attempting to cure all kinds of cough by the same remedy.

Coulomb, Charles Augustin de; born 1736, at Angoul me; entered the corps of engineers; was sent to Martinque, where he constructed fort Bourbon. In 1779, his theory of simple machines obtained the prize offered by the academy; and, in 1781, he was unanimously chosen a member of that body. In all difficult cases of

and invariably proved correct. A plan had been proposed to the estates of Brittany for making navigable canals in their . province, and Coulomb, as commissioner of the government, was to give his opinion of the scheme. Convinced that the ultimate benefit would by no means be pro portioned to the immense cost of the work, he decided against it. As this interferedwith the plans of certain of the ministry, he was obliged to do penance in the Abbaye. Coulomb requested permission to resign his office. His request was demed, and he was sent again to Brittany. His second decision was the same as the former, and the estates of Brittany honored his judgment by the present of a watch bearing the arms of the province. On the breaking out of the revolution, Coulomb was knight of the order of St. Louis, and hentenant-colonel in the corps of engineers. He gave up all his offices to devote himself to the education of his children. This leasure was useful to the cause of science; for he was led, by experiments on the elastic force of bent metal rods, to discover the secrets of magnetism. and the principles of electricity, which he ascertained with the more precision from his habit of combining, in all his inquires, calculation with observation. On the restoration of the institute, he was made a member, and appointed inspector-general of public instruction. He was actively employed in this department, which he was constantly elevating by his writings, and was in the enjoyn ent of much domestic happiness, when he died, Aug. 23, 1806.

Countset ; a town in Upper Guinea, the capital of the kingdom of the Ashan tees. Bowdich estimates as inhabitants gt 18,000. Lat. 6° 39° 50" N.; Ion. 2° 11545 W.

Council; an assembly: by way of emmence, an assembly of the church, called, also, synod. Provincial councils were held as early as the 2d century, that is, synods consisting of the prelates of a single province. The assembled bishops and claers deliberated on doctrines, rates and church discipline, and promised to execute the resolutions of the synod m These assemblies were ther charches, usually held in the capitals of the proyinces (metropolis), the bishops of which, who, in the 3d century, received the title of metropolitans, usually presided over their deliberations. The councils had no other legislative authority than that which rested on the mutual agreement of the members. After Christianity mechanics, his judgment was appealed to, 'had become the established religion of

the Roman empire, in the beginning of the 4th century, the emperors summoned councils, which were called acumenical, that is, universal councils, because all the bishops of the empire were invited to them. Among these, the most remarkable are, 1. the council of Nice (q.v.), in 325, by which the dogma respecting the Son of God was settled; 2. that of Constantinople (q. v.), 381, by which the doctrine concerning the Holy Ghost was decided; 3. that of Ephesus, 431; and, 4, that of Chalcedon, 451; in which two last, the doctrine of the umon of the divine and human nature an Christ was more precisely determined. In the 4th century, the opinion arose, that , the councils were under the particular direction of the Holy Ghost; hence the great authority which their resolutions obtained. Lake the Roman emperors, the German kings exercised, at first, the right of assembling synods; in particular, Chailemagne, during whose reign the clergy of the Frankish empire held a council at Frankfort on the Mame, in 749, which condemned the worship of images introduced among the Greeks. In the middle ages, the popes maintained the right of summoning councils, which, however, cannot be considered as general councils, since the Western church was soon separated from the Greek. The principal of thesestating councils are that of Clermont (40%), in the reign of Urban II, in which the first crusade was proofed upon, and some later ones, in which a reumon with the Greeks was attempted. In consequence of the great schism towards the end of the 14th century, which gave rise to, at first two, and afterwards three, candidates for the papal throne, the council of Pisa was convened, in 1409, which declared that the popes were sul ordinate to the general council, and condemned the schismatic After the dissolution of the candidates. council of Pisa, without having terminated, the schism, the council of Constance (q. v.) was held in 1414, the most solemn and numerous of all the couleds, which revised the principle, that a general councit is superior o the pope, adjusted the schism, and pronounced the condemnation of John Huss (1415), and of his friend Jerome of Prague (1416). The council of Bale (q. v.), in 1431, asserted the same principle, and intended a seformation, if not in the doctrines, yet in the constitution and discipline of the church. At the time of the reformation, the Protestants repeatedly demanded such a council; oven the emperor, and the states which had remained faithful to the old doctrine,

thought it the best means for restoring peace to the church. But the popes, peace to me courch. That, the popes, recollecting the decisions at Pisa, Constance and Bale, so discountageous tother authority, constantly adeavored to evade it. At length the plate could no longer resist the importunities the emperor and the states. He say more a council at Trent (q. v.), which tegm its session in 1545, and labored substitute to contirm the doctrines of the statiolic confirm the doctrines of the catholic church against the Protestants. the council of Trent, there has been no council, in which all the Catholic states, of the West have been represented; but there have been several national councils. particularly in France. The Lutherans have never settled their church concerns by councils; but in the Calvinistic churches, many particular synods have been a held, among which, that of Dort (1618), which confirmed the peculiar opinions of Calvin on election, in opposition to the Armmans, is distinguished. The Protestant councils could never have the same authority as the Catholic in matters of · doctime, for the Protestants do not consider their clergy as constituting the church; moreover, in the Protestant countries of Europe, each monarch has assumed the station of head of the church of his country. The chief questions in regard to councils are, 1. What is their authority in matters of doctrine and discipline 2. What is necessary to give them the character of occumencal or general councils, and to which of those that have been held should this name be confined? 3. Who has the right to convoke councils. to preside over them, to be a member of them? 4. Whether their decrees are authornative per se, or whether they require to be confirmed by some other power, as the pope, for instance? All these points are of vital interest to the Cutholic church, and have occasioned violent contests. They involve too many considerations to be treated here, and we must, refer the reader to Catholic works on this point. Among others, the Dictionnaire de Théalogw, par Bergier, extrait de l'Emcyclopèdie Methodique, Toulouse, 1817, contains a full article Concile.

COUNCIL, AULIC. (See Addic Council.)
COUNCIL OF STATE, in modern politics; a term of very vague meaning. In general, it means a council intended to assist the sovereign, and composed of members, whose chief business it is to discuss, advise, legislate or decide: it being the duty of the ministers to execute. Bullard's Histoire du Conseil d'État (Puris, 1718, 4to.),

and Guyot's Traité des Droits des Dignités, et Offices du Royaume (Paris, 1787), show the indefinite, vacillating and arbitrary character of the powers of the constil d'état, in France, before the revolution. It judged cases of moritime prizes, often decided in civil and criminal processes, determined the authority of the papal bulls, &c. The abolition of such a body was an act of wisdom in the constituent assembly. It was succeeded by the count of cassation (q. v.), which is not only the court of ultimate appeal, but also defines the jurisdiction of different tribunals in case of conflict. The constitution of the year III established a council of state, under the direction of the consuls, pour rediger les projets de loi et de réglements, et pour resoudre les difficultés en matière administrative. These extensive and vague powers of the council contained the seeds of mischief, particularly as that body was under the direction of the consuls. In 1802, the conseil d'état was constituted juge des appels comme d'abus : and this abuse still continues. The powers of the council were still further enlarged by . senatus-consultes, and even by insperial decrees: thus it was empowered to annul the decisions of the cour des comptes, and still retains this dangerous authority. Under the Bourbons, the conseil d'etat has been intrusted with powers of indefinite extent, and of all kinds, which are by no means vested in the executive, by the Besides this, the members are appointed and removed at the will of the king. This council has, says Corménin (Questions de Droit Administratif, p. 5), une juridiction tellement (tendue, qu'on ne trouve rien de semblable ni en Trance dans les temps anteriours a la revolution, m wans les autres pays de l'Europe, telle enfin, ga'elle se mele a presque lous nos intérêts. , qu'elle affecte presipic loutes nos propriéts, qu'elle toucke a presque toutes nos personnes. in Space, when the constitution of the cortes was in force, a constitutional council of state existed. In Prossia, an assem-bly composed of the highest civil and military officers, with the princes, is called Stadsrath (council of state), but, of course, no power is vested in that body. They give their opinion on questions laid before ithem by the king. The prince royal is its president. In some of the U. States, there are councils, which the governors are obliged to consult upon executive business, and which have a negative upon their appointments to other.

Courcin Prive, in England, is the principal council belonging to the king.

In 1679, the number of members, having become inconveniently large, was limited to 30. It is now, however, again mdefinite, but only such members attend as are summoned on each particular occasion. The lord president of the council is the fourth great officer of state. He is appointed, by letters patent under the great seal, during pleasure. Privy counsellors' are nominated by the king, without patent or grant, and removable at his pleasure. Tko power of the privy council, in offences against the government, extends only to inquiry, and their committal is not privileged beyond that of an ordinary justice of the peace. But in plantation or admiralty causes, in disputes of colonies concerning their charters, and in some other cases, an appeal lies to the king m council. The privy council continues for six months after the accession of a new prince, unless he previously dissolve it. Proclamations, which, if consonant to the law of the land, are binding on the subject, are assued with the advice of this council.

Council and Session, Lords of; the supreme judges of the highest court of Scotland. (See Scotland.)

Council Bluffs; a military post belonging to the U. States, on the west bank of the Alissouri, about 50 miles above the junction of the La Platte, and 650 above the junction of the Missouri with the Mississippi. Lon. 96° 42′ W.; lat. 41° 31′ N. It is an important mation, the highest up the Missouri, that is occupied by the U. States as a inditary position. Before the U. States occupied this post, the Ottoes and Missouris held a council there, Aug. 3, 1814, which gave rise to the name. Bluff was originally a sea term meaning high land. (See Pickering's Vocabulary of Americanisms.)

Counsel; those who give counsel in law; any counsellor or advocate, or any number of counsellors, barristers or sergenate, as the plaintiff's counsel or the defendant's counsel. In this sense, the word has no plural, but is applicable, in the singular number, to one or more persons.

Counsellor, in law, is one whose profession is to give advice in questions of law, and to manage causes for chems. (See Advocate.)

Counsellor (in German, Rath). In Germany, the mania for titles is carried to a greater degree than in any other country in Europe. Almost every man is desirous of possessing one, and the title of even the lowest officer is reverently repeated, with a preceding Mr., as often as the in-

lividual is addressed by persons of equal or lower rank; for instance, we have Mr. Lieutenant, may, sometimes Mr. Tuxgatherer, and even Mrs. Turgatheress (Frau Steuer-einnehmerin). The title Rath (counsellor), in particular, has been distributed with a most ridiculous profusion. In all branches of government, you meet counsellors in abundance. Every one is a counsellor who has passed through certain preparatory degrees, particularly in Prussia. In fact, the term, in Prussia, is as common as mandarin in China. The judges are not judges, but court-counsellors, which title, for the sake of precision, is amplified to country, or city, or high-country-court counsellor (Oberlandesgerichtsrath). There are also Finanz-Räthe, Medizinal-Räthe, Regierungs-Rathe, &c.; and, in all branches, Geheime-Räthe, as, Geheime-Medizinal-Rathe, Geheime-Finanz-Räthe, & c. Moroover, asit always happens that honors and titles gradually decline in value, new ones must be invented: thus, in Prussia, the title Geheime-Rath being given to persons who have nothing to do with the private deliberations of the government, it has been decined necessary to give to the actual counsellors a new and distinguishing title: they are called real-privy-counsellors. And you find, therefore, in Prussm Wirkliche-Geheime-Ober-Finanz-Rathe (real-privy-highfinance-counsellor)! and so in all branches. And who are these real-privy-high &c.'s You would think they were at least several degrees higher than the privy counsellors of England. They are, in fact, however, mere assistants of the minister. Besides this host of Rathe, who have acmally official duties to discharge, there is another swarm, equally numerous, of people whose tale of counsellor is a mere tale of honor, like the Chinese peaceck's reather. The title most generally bestow-ed in this way is *Hofrath* (counsellor of the court). Hofrathe and Geheime-Hofrathe are so common in Germany, that a traveller observes, if you spit out of the window on a crowd, it is ten to one that you but a Hofrath. There are also Bau-Rathe (building-counsellors), Steuer-Rathe (tax-coun-· sellors), Universitäts-Rathe, Commerzien-Rathe: and again the same titles, with the honorary term Geheime (privy) prefixed, as Geheime-Pau-Räthe, &c. The title of Krirgs-Rath (counsellor of war) is often green to men who have nothing military in their occupation or habits. The old proverb says, Sat verbum sapienti, but here we are tempted to exclaim, Sat verbum stulto, (See Council, Counsellor, Privy. Privy.)

COURT, COURTER, OF COURTE (1702) Latin comes), appears to have been first used, as a title of dignity, under the relati of Constantine. During the existence of the republic, the inferior officers, as tribuni, profecti, scriba, medici, haruspices, accensi, præcones, who accompanied the proconsules and proprætores into their provincial governments, were known as the comites or cohors of their principal. (Cic. pro Rab. Post. 6.) On the establishment of the imperial government the name was applied to the court and household of the prince; and Dio (53) mentions a council of senators, selected by Augustus as his (Salmas, ad Sucton. Tib. 46.) On the first distribution of his dominions, and the foundation of the new capital by Constantine, 10 out of 35 provincial generals received the title of comes. The civil officers, likewise, who were honored with this distinction, gradually become very numerous, and lists of them may be found in the Cod. Theod. vi, 12-20, in the Notitia Imper., and in the glossaries of Spelman and Du Cange. After the fall of the Roman power, the title was retained by the conquerors; and, under Charlemagne, it denoted equally a military or civil employment. About the end of the 15th century, in Germany, and under the last princes of the Merovi, gian race in France, the title appears to have become hereditary in families, from the weakness of the crown, which was unable to recall the dignity which it had once bestowed. Selden, in his Titles of Honor, treats the origin and progress of the title at much length, and with his usual learning. Such is the account usually given of the origin of the counts of modern times. The institutions of the ancient German tribes may, however, have contributed much to the establishment of this class of nobles. In early times, before the existence of the Latin comites, the Germans had officers chosen, at least in some tribes, by the people. These were a kind of inferior judges. After the Franks became the ruling nation, they made a change in their character. The kings now appointed them, and they excressed jurisdiction over certain districts in the king's name, with the title of Gra-The word has been derived very variously from grau (gray or venerable), from γράφω, to write (like the Gallico-Latin word graffare, whence greffier), &c., from gefera, signifying companion, and corresponding to the Latin comes; but there is little doubt that it is really from the Saxon gere/a (gatherer, and subsequently judge). These ancient officers

ure, perhaps, as fairly entitled as the comites to be considered the root of the subsequent The German title Graf corresponds to the title count in other countries • of Europe. From the instructions given to these Grafen, which Marcalf has presorved, it is evident that they superintend-, ed the administration of justice, the police, and the taxes. After the time of the Carloving an dynasty, the office and name remained, but different classes of counts or, Grafen were tormed; thus Pfalzgrafen, or comites palatii, the judges of the court, who decided whether a case should be brought before the king; Markgrafen, counts of the frontiers; Holzgrafen, counts of the forests, that is, inspectors, &c. These royal officers soon usurped power which did not belong to them, and treated the people so badly, that the emperors and kings were obliged to go themselves into the provinces, and hold courts, or to send particular officers for this purpose, called Sendgrafen. The capitalaries of Charlemagne contain very precise instructions to these officers, on the subject of their duties. The sheriffs in England were originally the deputies of the English counts or earls, who correspond to the German Their Latin title is still ricecomes. Their English title, derived from shire and gerefa, has the same origin with the German Graf. (See Sheriff.) In the German empire, the polver of the counts increased with the progress of the nation, whilst the imperial government became weaker and weaker. They even began to transmit their titles to their children, as did also the dukes, and other officers, in these times of unpunished usurpation. In the 12th century, the division of counties, on the continent of Europe, was abolished, and thus the counts lost their jurischenon, except on their own possessions. In point of rank, the English earls are considered as corresponding to the continental counts. (See Earl.)

Countenguards, in fortification, are Fmall ramparts with parapets and ditches, to cover some part of the body of a place. They are of several shapes, and differently situated. They are generally made before the bastion, in order to cover the opposite flanks from being seen from the covertway, and, in this case, consist of two faces, making a salient angle parallel to the faces of the bastion. They are sometimes made before the ravelins. The cost of building them is more than proportionate to their value, especially when they are small, and without cannon, in which case, particular-· by, they are called courrefaces.

COUNTERMARK, in numeritatics (from counter and mark). Antiquaries call by this name those stamps or impressions which are found on ancient coins or medals, and have been given since their first impress in the mint. These countermarks or stamps are often executed without any care, and frequently obliterate the most interesting portion of the original inscription. Thus they correspond with the codices rescripti. In performing this operation, the new mark was stamped upon the coin with a heavy blow of a mallet upon a punch, on which was engraved the countermark, of a round, oval, or square shape. The use of countermarks appears to have been first adopted by the Greeks, but it is impossible to say at what period of their history. Upon the Greek coins so altered, the countermarks are generally figures, accompanied by inscriptions. Those of Rome seldom contain any thing more than inscriptions and There have been various monograms. opinions respecting the cause of these countermarks; some antiquaries thinking that they were to indicate an augmentation of the value of the money upon which they were stamped; others, that they were vouchers for workmen; and, again, that they were only struck upon money taken or received from foreign enemies. Johert, Millin, De Boze, Birnaed, Mabudel, Pellenn, Florez, and other antiquaries, have exercised their conjectural skill on this subject. During the long war with recolutionary France, England stamped milhons of Spanish dollars with small, oval countermarks of the head of George III upon the neck of the Spanish monarch. Many of them were completely restamped or countermarked in the mint, and both impressions were sometimes visible, the English head and reverse not, completely destroying the Spanish head, armorial bearings and inscriptions.

Counterpoint signifies, in music, a part or parts added to a given melody. In ancient times, musical sounds were represented by certain letters of the alphabet, A great improvement was made on the old system by the celebrated Guido d'Arezzo, who substituted points or dots in the place of letters. The simple harmony of that period consisted of notes equal in length, and the term contrapunctus, or counterpoint, was applied to it in consequence of the points by which it was represented being placed under, or, as it were, against each, other, on the staff. By counterpoint, we understand, therefore, the several parts which compose musical

harmony; and the science of counterpoint consists in a knowledge of the rules according to which those parts must be constructed. On this account, the term is frequently used for musical composition in general. When the notes employed are of equal length, the counterpoint is called simple. When notes of various length are used, the counterpoint is said to be figurate or florid.

COUNTERPROOF, in engraving; an impression taken from a newly-printed proof of a copperplate, for the purpose of a closer investigation of the state of the plate, as the proof is, in every respect, the reverse of the plate, while the counterproof has every thing the same way.

COUNTER-REMONSTRANTS (Contraremonstranten). (See Remonstrants, and Gomarists, under the article of Reformed Church.)

COUNTERSCARP, in fortification, is properly the slope or talus of the exterior side of a ditch, towards the field. The inner alope, on the side towards the place, is called escarpe. Sometimes the covert way and glacis are termed counterscarp.

County: originally, the district or territory under the jurisdiction of a count or earl: now, a circuit, or particular portion of a state or kingdom, separated from the rest of the territory, for certain purposes, in the administration of justice. • It is called also a shire. (Soe Shire.) Each county has its sheriff and its court, with other officers employed in the administration of justice, and the execution of the laws. In England, there are 58 counties, and in each is a lord-lieutenant, who has command of the militia. The several states of America are divided by law into counties, in each of which is a county court of micror jurisdiction; and, in each, the supreme court of the state holds stated sessions.-County palatine, in England, is a county distinguished by particular privileges; so called a palatio (the palace), because the chief officer in the county had originally royal powers, or the same power, in the administration of justice, as the king had in his palace; but these powers are now abridged. The counties palatine, in England, are Lancaster, Chester and Durham. There is a court of chancery in each of the countres palatine of Durham and Lancaster. There are many privileges attached to these counties. In none of them are the king's ordinary wras of any force.--- Blackstone, 79. (See Count.) .

County Corporate, in England, is a title fiven to several cities or boroughs, which have extraordinary privileges, so that they form counties by themselves.

Cour (French; a blow). This term is used in various connexious, to convey the idea of promptness and force.—Coup de main, in military language, signifies a prompt, vigorous and successful attack.—Coup d'ail, in a military sense; a rapid conception of the advantages and weaknesses of positions and arrangements of troops. It is also used for a quick comprehension of all the points and bearings of any subject.—Coup de thédtre; a sudden and striking change in the action.—Coup d'itat is a forcible and arbitrary political measure.

Courland (in Russian, Kourliandia; in German, Kurland); formerly a duchy, to which also belonged Semigallia. present, they form together the Russian government of Mittau, containing 10,280 square nules, and 581,300 inhabitants. Courland hes on the Balnc. The Dwina forms its frontier to the east. It is situated between lat, 55° 40' and 57° 45' N., and lon. 20° 55' and 27° 10' E., and is generally flat. Morasses and lakes are numerous. The climate is cold. Though healthy in general, particularly, on the coasts, yet fever, dysentery and gout are not uncommon. The soil is in general sandy, in some parts clayey, almost everywhere susceptible of cultivation, but not remarkably fertile. The principal productions are grain, flax and hemp. The forests are numerous, and some almost impenetrable. In some parts, the axe has never yet penetrated. There is little pasturage, and the cattle are small. Goats are numerous; swme and birds do not abound. The forests contain wild boars, bears, wolves, elks, and other game. The coasts, lakes and rivers abound with fish. The country contains mines of iron, quarries of gypsum, turf-bogs and mineral Yellow amber is collected, on the shores of the Baltic. The manufactures are few, comprising only those of paper, potashes, spirit distilled from grain, and bricks. The exports are grain, hemp, flax, flax-seed, Imseed oil, timber, planks, skins, wax, honey, tallow, resin, and other raw products. The principal trade is carried on at the ports of Windau and Liebau. The roads are obstructed by forests and. morasses. The population is composed principally of Lettonians, Livonians, Germans and Russians. There are also some Poles and Jews. The greater part of the inhabitants are Lutherans; about one fifth. are Catholics. The nobility is composed. of Poles, Russians and Germans, and possesses great privileges. Courland was anciently a part of Livonia, and, like the

thet was conquered in the 13th century, by the knights of the Teutonic order. was subsequently united with Semigallia, and under the name of the duchy of Courthe two provinces became a fief of Poland. The duchy, however, was governed by its hereditary dukes till 1737. The sixth duke. Frederic William, espoused, in 1710, Anna Ivanowna, princess of Russia, who, after his death, maintained possession of the duchy; but the governinent of it was intrusted to prince Ferdinand, brother of the deceased duke. the death of Ferdinand, in 1737, the estates, in consequence of the nuthuence of the empress of Russia, elected her favorite and grand chamberlain, Ernest John Biren, to succeed him, who was exiled to Siberia in 1740. In 1762, the emperor Peter of Russia recalled Biren, who, after some conteg with prince Charles, son of the king of Poland, who had been placed over the duchy in his absence, was declared by the estates the only legitimate duke. In 1769, he transferred the duchy to his son, at whose death the estates of Courland solicited a unibn with the Russian empire. Catharine consented, and, by an edict of April, 1795, secured to the mhabitants all the privileges which they had enjoyed under their princes, and all the rights of her other subjects. Since this ome, it has formed a government dauded into five districts. In 1818, the emperor Alexander confirmed the charter of the nobility of Courland, which declared the peasants free, and regulated their relations to their former lords.

Court (curtis, curia, anda); the space enclosed by the walls of a feudal residence, in which the followers of a lord used to resemble, in the middle ages, to admineter justice, and decide respecting affairs of common interest, &c. It was next used for those who stood in immediate connexion with the lord and master, the pares curiæ, the limited portion of the general assembly, to which was intrusted the pronouncing of judgments, &c. Fundly, it came to denote the residence of a prince, with his family and highest officers. From this court (aula principalis), when the vassals began to take less part in the management of the public business, and this could no longer be transacted on the . bublic court days (at Easter, Whitsuntide and Christians), the different permanent state authorities were separated with independent powers, and the actual court, the residents and daily attendants of the prince, The euacquired a distinct character. quette of the courts has been formed, in

modern times, at first on the model of the old Spanish court (the Spanish fashion of wearing the cloak, Spanish reverences, or bending of the knee, &c., being adopted), and, subsequently, the less formal ceremonial of the French court, in the time of Francis I, Catharine of Medici, Louis XIV, which admits of a dress accommodated to the existing fashion, and requires a mere inclination of the neck. The obstructions in the way of presentation have been growing fewer and fewer, especially since the time of the French revolution. The court offices are, in part, the old hereditary offices, derived from the times of feudal services. Besides these, there are others of a more modern character, \* which are founded, however, in some degree at least, on the old distribution of services among such officers at the chief marshal, chamberlain, master of the horse, butler, &c. The modern court offices are now all personal, and have become very numerous.—Court ladies are noble ladies composing the retinue of the princess. At their head stands the dame d'honneur .-Court council (Hofrath—consilium.nulcum). (See Aulic Council.) This corresponds, in Germany, to the French conseil dit voi. Similar authorities, called, in the smaller states, Landesregierungen, were established in Germany in the 16th century, in imitation of the imperial council, and, like this council, were, by degrees, intrusted with judicial functions, till they have finally become supreme courts, wherever no particular department is established, with the charge of presiding over the general administration of justice, and have, as in Prussa, resigned the name of government to the advaintstrative authorities.

Courts or Justice. [The first part of this article, including all which precedes the extended account of the courts of England, is taken from the German Conversations-Lexicon, and was, of course, written by a German lawyer.] The essence of the judicial power consists in deciding according to existing law, and the: facts of the case which have been brought before the court. The judge must follow scrupulously the existing laws, whether they agree with his own convictions or not. Every departure from them involves an overstepping of his own power, and an infringement upon that of the legislative body. Every decision, resting on a deviation from existing law, is invalid; and the purpose of correcting such deviations gave rise to the court of cassation in France, and to the writs of error in England. Still it cannot be denied, that a system of law

is developed far better by the higher courts than by express acts of the legislature; and the Roman, the most complete of all systems of law, is indebted for its perfection to this very circumstance, that its extension and improvement, with the ex-\*ception of a few applications of the legislative power, were effected principally by · the pretors or chief judges. (See Civil Law.) So also the English common law has been built up principally by the courts, who are guided mostly by precedents which their predecessors on the bench have established. The ancient French courts (parliaments and other cours souveraines) exercised a similar power. decided contested points of law by arrets réglémentaires, which were binding also upon the occurrence of similar cases; but, 1790, not only was this privilege denied ' them (Code Napol., art. 5), but they were not even permitted to apply the universal principles of right to cases not provided for by express law. On the contrary, they were obliged to refer such cases to the national assembly. These questions, however, soon multiplied to such a degree, that the right of deciding according to -general principles and the analogy of previous cases, was restored to the courts, and they were even menaced with punishment, if they refused to make such decisions, under the pretence that the laws were obscure. (Code Napol., art. 4.) A similar course has been pursued in Prussia; and it will forever be the duty of courts, in the explanation and application of the laws, to take for their guidance those higher and eternal principles of right which are the same in all ages and nations; not, indeed, making them take the place of positry law, but explaning the positive laws with reference to them. Many peculiarities, in ancient and modern constitutions of government, are explained, when we reflect that every cominand (imperium) is, in itself, distinct, from the judicial power (jurisdictio). courts in Germany are clothed with the power of carrying into effect their own decisions; but this was not always so, nor is it now the case in other countries. all civil processes in England, the original writ is first issued from the chancery of the kingdom, except, in trifling cases, where the sum in dispute is less than 40. shillings. The original writ is put into the hands of the sheriff, and contains an order to hold the defendant to do what the plaintiff requires of him; or to show cause to the court why he should not (an order

styled in England a pracipe, in Germany a mandatum cum clausula); or, without giving the defendant such a choice, the writ orders the sheriff absolutely to bring him before a court of justice as soon as the plaintiff gives security for prosecuting his suit (this order is called a pone, or The various writs si te fecerit securum). receive names from the initial Latin words. as all the judicial proceedings in the English courts were in Latin till 1730. The case is somewhat similar in France, where the officers of the court (huissiers) execute the first summons, like the officers of government, without receiving a commission from the court. 'Sentences, in criminal cases, are executed in France solely by the advocates of the crown, and not by the judges; in England, bythe sheriffs of when the courts were reorganized, in the countries. The judicial power should not be accused of a defective organization, because the courts have no power to execute their sentences. The constitution must provide for such an execution; but, strictly speaking, the judicial power has completed its duty in deciding between right and wrong. The sentence of a court of justice can never affect the person of a sovereign prince, and, even in regard to his immovable property, there are difficulties in the way of its execution. The remedy of the English nation, in .his case, is stated in the article England. In Germany, executions could formerly be obtuned against the princes in the imperial courts, and they were to be carried into effect by the circles of the empire; but, with the dissolution of the unperial constitution, this power has ceased. German confederation can carry into effect, against the states composing it, its own decrees, and the decisions of the court appointed to arbitrate between different states (the Austragal Instanz), but cannot take cogmizance of the complaints of a private individual against a sovereign power, whether the one to which he is hunself subject, or that of another state.

The above distinction between the proper business of courts, to decide on what is right in particular cases, and the powers of the executive in regard to the administration of justice, often appears in the organization of courts, and the officers of government concerned in the administration of justice. In the first place, this is observable in cases where the object is not so much to settle contested points, as 'to carry into effect the undisputed claims of one party on another, or to settle temporarily the relations of the parties (as, for instance, in regard to the possession of

certain property), with a view to a final decision of their rights at a future time. Acknowledgments of debt made before a public officer, and containing an order for their execution in the name of the government (guaranda, or guarantigia, re-.sembling the French notarial documents), and, in general, all indubitable claims, were not anciently esteemed subjects of judicial exammation, in a proper sense, in Germany; and this view of the subject it one of the sources of the participation of the executive in the administration of justice in that country. Another arises from the ordinances of the Italian cities. In the second place, the duties of the higher branches of the immistry of justice are founded on the same distriction. Nothing belonging properly to legal decisions falls within the department of a himiseer of justice.\* His duty is to provide that the tribunals are properly filled, and that they perform their duties. He issues mendates enjoining them to administer justice (mandata de promovenda justitia). hears complaints respecting the delay or non-performance of justice; but, in case of a wrong decision, on the part of the court, the minister has no right to alter it. To obtain this object, appeal must be made to higher cours. The establishment of these courts of appeal was an important improvement in the civil constitutions of Germany. These various gradations of courts were unknown to that country in the middle ages. The decision of every court was final, except that sometimes important cases were referred to a higher and more experienced tribunal (the high court); and, after the territorial jurisdiction of the feudal lords had become better settled, a demal of justice in a lower court could be remedied by carrying the complaint to the court of the feudal supe rior; and, when the judges of the lower -courts had decided wrongfully, they were personally responsible to the higher court, where right and wrong were often decided by an appeal to God in single combat. But, even after regular courts of appeal had been established, from the lowest rank up to the imperial, royal, & c. tribunal, and the ancient tribunals which succeeded the prince's court (aula principalis) had attained a fixed seat and permanent judges (in England, by Magna Charta, 1215, in France, 1305, and in Germany, 1495),

there were still cases in which the lower courts might be accused of obvious injustice in their decisions, and attempts were made to procure their abolition, and the higher authorities were very ready to avail themselves of the opportunity. excellent work on the history of this relation between the executive (conseil privé) and the judicial power in France is that of Henrion de Pansey, entitled De l'.lutorité Judiciare en France (On the Judicial Authority in France) Paris, 1818, 4to. This mixture of the executive and judicial authorities in France, which had become an object of universal detestation on account of the egregious abuses to which it led (such as infringement upon the power of the judicature by means of commissions, by the cassation of legal decisions, by lettres de cachet), was abolished by the institution of the court of cassation, (q. v.) By this means, the gradations of tribunals were reduced to two; and the number of district courts (tribunaux de première instance) and the high courts (cours d'appel) was diminished. In Germany, probably to the advantage of the country, the auceeding from the barofial or municipal the princely and the royal tribunals, has been retained. (See Appeal, Courts of.) For a general history of the constitution of courts, we are indebted to a celebrated jurist, of the Jewish religion, J. D. Meyer-Esprit, Origine et Progrès des Institutions Judiciaires des principaux Pays d'Europe, published in 1819—1822, 6 volumes. The subject, however, is by no means exhausted... The secret courts of Westphaha, in Germany, are unique, and have never yet received a full explanation, notwithstanding the labors of learned lawyers, such as Kopp, Eichhorn and Wigand. It might be made a question, whether their establishment, which is dated, in the 13th century, had not some connexion with that of the mquisition, founded about the same time.

As it is an object of high importance to fix the limits of the judicial power, with respect to the executive and legislative, it is equally important to ascertain those limits with respect to the law of nations. In this, too, there is a great confusion, both in theory and practice, which it is highly important to settle by particular treaties between nations. While it remains, it not only throwsobstacles in the way of interacourse between different states, but also tends to destroy the confidence of the subjects in the justice of rulers by the striking inconsistencies which it presents.—France, as far as we are informed, is the

The states of Germany have a particular deperiment of government, which superintends the administration of justice, in the same manner as the U States have departments of state, of the treasury, &c.

to every country; and permits its citizens to bring foreigners before a French tribunul, although they have neither residence nor property in the realm; and no delay, of trial takes place in favor of a foreigner, residing in his own country, if accused before a French tribunal by a citizen of France. (Code rivil, art. 14.) This course is the more dangerous for foreigners, as it is possible for them to be summoned before the court, and condemned, without the slightest knowledge of what is going on. The summons is delivered to the state attorney, to be sent to the minister of foreign affairs, who transmits it through the diplomatic authorities to the accused. If the summons is delayed or miscarried (examples of which are known to have taken place) the trial still goes on; and the proceedings of the rourt, and the sentence it passes, lose nothing of their validity. If the stranger comes to France, or has property there, he may be immediately arrested and imprisoned, though a Frenchman could not be. (Law of Sept. 10, 1807.) The double injustice of this system appears from the fact, that the French do not acknowledge the jurisdiction of foreign tribunals in the case of their own countrymen, even though this be based on the universal principles of right. It is, therefore, very desirable that all governments should protect their subjects by strictly maintaining the law, that no one shall be accused except before his proper judges. This universal rule has been acknowledged by France only in relation to Switzerland, by various treaties, old and new, and, · finally, by that of Sept. 27, 1803.-With this subject is connected the authority allowed to the decisions of the courts of foreign countries. The imperial constitution in Germany, under which all the states considered themselves as members of one whole, accustomed them to regard foreign judicial decisions, in private causes, as binding; and the tribunals were held bound to carry into effect such decisions whenever required to do so. The same enstom prevails in England as to chattels, but in regard to real estate, no foreign jurisdiction is acknowledged. In France, since 1629, the decisions of foreign courts have had no force. If a judicial process is carried on against a French citizen, it is required to be reviewed before a French court, at Teast as to its most essential features, unless the French party chooses to go over the whole again from the beginning (comme entier); and, if both parties are foreigners, a petition for the attach-

only state which extends its jurisdiction, ment of the property of the debtor, in France, is never granted. (Sirey's Journal de la Cour de Cassation, viii, 453, and xviii, 58.) Similar laws were established in the kingdom of Westphalia and some of the German states; for example, Bavaria began to refuse all authority to the decisions of foreign courts; but it soon became evident that such a system would introduce great confusion, as there was so lively an intercourse between the different German states, and the old rules were in a great measure restored. (A decree of the Bavarian government, dated June 2, 1811, gives authority to the decisions of foreign courts, in civil causes, only when , no property can be found on which to levy execution in the state where the suit. has been carried on, and where no equal or superior claims exist to the property of the debtor in Bayana. This system, how ever, is by no means free from objection.) As the relations of the German states, as members of the empire, have ceased, and ' the unconditional admission of the validity of the decisions of foreign courts would be attended with many disadvantages, it is highly desirable that a uniform rule on this subject should be introduced throughout the German confederacy.-The authority to be given to sentences of foreign courts, in crimmal cases, is a subject of great delicacy, and involves the difficult question, how far states are required to deliver up accused persons who have fled to them for protection. The law of nations, on this point, is nearly uniform. The substance of it is, that, in criminal cases, one country has nothing to do with the sentences of another, either for or against the accused. The confiscation of property, in particular, which is decreed in one state, is absolutely disregarded in every other.—The punishment of crimes committed in foreign lands is a matter still more disputed. The various theories on penal law present each a different view of the subject. It should always be remembered, in discussing this question, that the administration of the penal law has a higher object than the acquiring or securing an advantage to the state, and a better foundation than the caprice which threatens this or that action with pumshment. and which would suffer the most infamous crimes to pass unpunished if they are inadvertently omitted in the penal code. The penal laws, more than any other branch of legislation, should have regard to those eternal principles, which are older than any laws. They intimately concern all mankind; they are the great

support of moral order: every state, there- severer than that provided by the laws of fore, should lend to others all the assistance. in executing these laws, which accords with its convictions of right. A state which tolerates a criminal in its bosom unpunished, wherever his crune has been committed. partakes of his guilt. He should be punished according to the laws of the land (for each state must regard its own penal laws as the most just); but only for acts which are criminal in themselves and universally; such as murder, robbery, fraud, violence, which may be styled crimes against the law of nature (delicta juris gentium). Acts which are prohibited by particular states for particular reasons, and violate no universal laws of morality and justice, are to be viewed simply as violations of the peculiar organization of cerram states; and no other state has good feason to punish them: for, before this can properly be done, it must first be decided, that the prohibitory laws of the states supposed accord with the higher demands of justice, and a different state has neither the means nor the right to make this decision. For this reason, it is the universal practice of nations to passover . crimes which merely infringe the positive regulations of other states (delicia juris positivi); such as violations of financial laws, laws against contraband trade, police regulations, eccle-astical ordinances, &c. In fact, one state could not, consistently, punish such offences against the laws of another; for foreign states often encourage such transgressions of positive law to advance their own political views. But if a subject of one country, while abroad, commits an offence of this class against the laws of his own country, he is properly liable to punishment on his return. The catzens of a country, while they are abroad, are subject to the laws of their native land. This is the rule in England, France (Code d'Instruct. crim. art. 5), Prus ia (Allgemeine Landricht, ii, 20, sect. 12-15), Austria (Strafge setzbuch. s. ii. sect. 30). In this case, as in those before mentioned, France extends as jurisdiction beyond the proper bounds. It assumes the right of punishing strangers who violate the laws of the state abroad (Code d'Instruct. crim. art. 6); and, on the other hand, it refuses to punish crimes committed by its own subjects in foreign lands against foreigners (Code d'Instruct. crim. art. 7, 24). As offences committed abroad are not to be considéred as an immediate violation of the penal code of the country where they are brought to justice, the punish-

the country where the offence took place; and, as the punishment cannot be more severe than that imposed by the laws of the country where it is inflicted, the milder rule should be followed. This is in accordance with the statutes of Prussias (Allg. Landr. ii, 20, sect. 15). To adopt the punishment imposed by the laws of the . country where the act took place, without regard to circumstances, is contrary to all correct theory, and would lead to the greatest inconsistencies. This would require the application of the most absurd laws that were ever framed—the penal laws of England, for instance, where death is the punishment for cutting down a tree, or wearing a mask in a wood; and the religious laws of Spain are equally sovere. If the liberty of selection, among the punishments imposed by foreign laws, be allowed, this would lead to the most pernicious uncertainty and caprice.

COURTS. [In the following article, we shall give, at some length, a view of the courts of England, followed by an account of the courts of the U. States.] COURIS OF ENGLAND. Inferior Courts. In describing the courts of England, it will be sufficient to take a cursory view of those of inferior and limited jurisdiction; among the most inconsiderable of which is the pipowders court, which is commonly said to derive u- appellation from word- signifying the dusty foot, either in allusion to the suitors who frequented it, or, as some say, because justice was as speedily done in this court as the dust could be shaken from the Barrington, however, derives the name from the old French pied-pouldreaux, a pediar, because the chapmen frequented these courts. The pipowders court is meident to fairs and markets, having two branches, one held by the lord of the franchise or his steward, the other by the clerk of the market. In this court are settled all disputes respecting contracts made, and all suits for injuries and offences committed during the fair. An appeal hes from this court to those of Westmuster hall. The pipowders court has fallen very much into disuse.—Courts. of manors and hundreds. The lord of every manor is entitled to hold a court. not of record, called a court baron, by himself or his steward, having a civil jurisdictions A hundred court is similar, only embracing a wider district.—The coroner's 'court is held by a coroner, who assembles, a jury to inquire concerning the death of any person, wherever any violence is susment inflicted on a foreigner ought not to be pected. (Coroners hold similar courts in

the U. States).—The sheriff's court. The sheriff of 'cuch county formerly held a court, called the sheriff's tourn or torn, twice a year, in each hundred of his county, at which every person over 12 years of age, and not specially privileged, was bbliged to attend, for the reformation of common grievances and nuisances, the ·trial of offences, and the preservation of peace and good government. It has also a considerable jurisdiction in civil suits. Though the jurisdiction of this court remants, its businéss has, it sceins, long since ceased, except in regard to actions of re-plevin, which, professor. Wooddeson says, are frequently commenced in the sheriff's torn, and almost as frequently removed intoa superior judicature.—The court lett has the same jurisdiction, in particular districts, that the sheriff's court has in the county, and, like the sheriff's court, is now almost obsolete.—Justices' court. The jurisdiction of justices of the peace has superseded that of most of the small courts. These officers are now the conservators of the peace, scattered in every town and parish We have a minute of the kingdom. account of the qualifications and powers of these officers in Burn's Justice. A justice of the peace is required to have a vearly income, clear of all encumbrances, of £100, or property estimated to be equivalent. The justices are commissioned by the king, their appointment being made through the lord chancellor. A justice is a judge of record, and causes are removed from his court to the superior courts by certiorari. The justices of each county hold quarterly sessions; but any justice is empowered to hold a court at any time for the examination and committing of offenders, and also for the trial of such actions as come within his commission.-The quarter sessions, as well as the individual justices, are instituted for the suppression and punishment of offences, and , their power extends to the committing to prison for trial for crimes, with but few exceptions. Two justices may determine the settlement of a pauper, but an appeal hes from their decisions to the quarter sessions.

Assizes. Courts of assize and nist prius are treated at length under the article Assizes. (q. v.) These courts are branches of those of Westminster hall, the great centre of the judicial administration in England, according to the forms of the common law.—Besides the above courts, there are others of a limited and special junisdiction; namely, three in London—I, the hustings court, which has a jurisdiction in civil actions, and at which some of the city

elections are held (among others, that of members of parliament from that city), and from which an appeal lies to certain justices of the city; 2. the sheriffs' courts; 3. a court of conscience, of summary jurisdiction in actions under 40 shillings, held by the lord mayor :- the court of commissioners of sewers, to provide for the repair of sea-walls, ditches, sewers, &c.:-the court of stannaries, for the tin mines in Cornwall and Devonshire, for the trial of suits in which the tinners are parties:courts of the forest, having jurisdiction over the royal forests:—the court of the royal franchise of Ely, belonging to the bishopric of that name, but held by justices, not by the bishop himself, and havmg jurisdiction of causes arising within the hishopric:—courts palatinate, of the counties palatine of Durham, Chester and Lancaster, which are courts of record, of superior jurisdiction, commensurate with that of the courts of Westminster, from which writs do not run into these counties palatine:-the court of the Marshalsea and of the palace, still held weekly at Southwark, whose purisdiction embraces a circuit of 12 miles about the king's palace, for the determination of causes ansing among the servants of the king's household; and the court of the earl marshal. authorized by the statute of 13 Richard II, chap. 2, to take cogmizance "of deeds of arms and war out of the realm, which cannot be discussed by the courts of the common law:"-beside-the ecclesiastical courts and those of admiralty and chancery, of which a more particular account will be given.

The Superior Courts of Westminster hall are the courts of echequer, common pleas, and king's bench. These three courts, and also that of chancery and the house of lords, are the remains and successors of the great court established in the Norman period, under the title of aula regis, which was divided, very naturally, into several departments, for the trial of different kinds of pleas; and, at length, these several branches of one jurisdiction became so many distinct courts.

The king's bench is considered as the most direct successor to the aula regis, in Westimuster hall. In this court, the sovereign is, by a fiction, supposed to preside in person, and the writs are, accordingly, made returnable "before the king, wherever he may be in England," because the court formerly followed the king to different parts of the kingdom, and was once held, in the 21st year of Edward I, at Royburgh, in Scotland; but, for many centuries, its sittings have been held in Westimuster hall, and the king never pre-

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sides at its sittings. Sir Edward Coke says, if he were present, still justice could be administered only by the justices, in the same manner as if he were absent; and sir William Blackstone says, when James II sat there, he was told by the judges that he must not give his opinion. The three courts of Westminster hall, at the time when they were constituted out of the aula regis, had jurisdiction of dis-'tinct kinds of actions; the king's bench having cognizance of criminal suits, the 'common pleas of suits between party and party respecting land titles and on contracts, and the exchequer in matters of reve-These courts have also a jurisdiction in respect to the person, and not resting wholly on the kind of action. Every one, for instance, has jurisdiction of sints in which its own attorneys, or some other of its officers, are parties: and through this right of jurisdiction, in relation to the person, the king's bench has drawn to itself cognizance of actions of almost all descriptions, in which the proceedings are at common law, except real actions; nor does this, exception much abridge its jurisdiction, for tale to lands, in England, as in the state of N. York, is tried in personal suits, between the parties to a real or supposed lease of the lauds in dispute. This general jurisdiction was acquired upon the principle that no other court could bring before it a person imprisoned by the king's bench; and, in respect to every such person, therefore, suits must be brought against him in that court, or there would be a failure of justice, as long as he should thus continue to be imprisoned. A defendant being, accordingly, once arrested and imprisoned, in an action brought before this court, might, while so in custody, be sued in any civil action, in the same court. By taking one step further, the jurisdiction was made general in such actions, namely, by adopting the fiction that the defendant was imprisoned by the court. The great mass of the present husiness of this court, winch fills the reports of its proceedings, is brought under its cognizance by this fiction. It has also supervision of all the interior courts of common law throughout the kingdom, from all which a writ of error lies to this court. It may also punish magistrates and officers of justice for wilful and corrupt abuses of their authority. This species of supervision has, in some cases, been extended to other than civil and judicial officers, as in the case mentioned by Noy, where the court issued a mandamus to the bishop of Exon to allow the sacred unction and

baptismal oil to the people of a certain parish, to whom they had been denied by him. This power of supervision is frequently exercised by ordering officers of corporations to discharge the duties incumbent upon them. This court does not take cognizance of any civil action inwhich the amount in dispute is less than 40 shillings. Actions are brought from the common pleas to this court, and are also carried from the king's bench to the exchanger chamber or the house of lords by writ of error.

The common pleas, originally having jurisdiction of civil causes, between party and party, was, like the king's bench, ambulatory, moving with the king wherever he went in the kingdom. But, by the 11th chapter of Magna Charta, it was ordained that it "should not follow the court, but be held in some certain place." This court is still distinguished by some of the characteristics of its original constitution, for it Ifas the purisdiction of real actions, and has no jurisdiction in felony and treason. Lake the king's bench, it may issue writs of habeas corpus, which may be issued by the whole court or any one of its judges, to bring up a person imprisoned, and inquire into the cause of las impresonment, and set lum at liberty if he is confined without lawful cause. A writ of error hes from it to the king's bench. It consists of a chief-pastice and three justices.

The court of cicheques, laving jurisdiction of that port of the general business of the auta rigis which relates to the revenue, derives it! name from a chequered cloth (ercheolaci, a chess-board, or chequeiwork) on the table. There are reckoned 7 conits in the exchequer; viz., 1. of pleas; 2. of accounts; 3. of receipts: 4. of exchequer chamber (where all the 12 judges of England assemble to consult on difficult matters of law); 5, of exchequer chamber for errors in the exchequer; 6, for errorsan the king's bench: 7. of equity. court of equity is held by the lord treesurer, the chancellor of the exchequer and four barons of the exchequer. The four burons, in fact, are the regular and constant judges of this court, in which is transacted the business originally belongmg to the exchequer, namely, the calling the king's debtors to account, on bills being filed against them by the attorneygoneral and the recovering lands, chattels or profits belonging to the kings. A court of common law is also held by these four barons. And, in both these courts, civil actions, in general, may be brought, under pretence or on the fiction that the plain-

tiff is the king's debtor, and the less able to discharge the dues to the king, because his own debtor, the defendant, neglects to make the payment or do the act demanded; the fact whether the plantiff is, as he alleges in his writ, the king's debtor, · being never inquired into. One of these courts of exchequer chamber is merely an assembly of all the judges of the three superior courts, for consultation in matters of law. The court of exchequer chamber, for the correction of errors in the common law courts of evchequer, constituted by the statute of the 31 Edw. III, chap. 12, consists of the lord chancellor, the lord treasurer, and the judges of the king's bench and common pleas. The other court of exchequer chamber, for the correction of errofs in the king's bench, in certain cases, is constituted by the statute of 27 Elizabeth, chap. 8, and consists of the judges of the common pleas and the barons of the exchequer. We have seen that the three courts of king's bench, common pleas and exchequer have, all of them, by means of the fictions above mentioned, concurrent purisdiction of civil actions in general; and, if there were no higher tribinal for the supervision and correction of their deeisions, they might diverge into dalerent principles of adjudication so that what mas law in one would not be so in another, and thus uncertainty neight be introduced into rights and obligations of every kind. . Accordingly, every community requires to have one ultimate ribunal of appeal on all questions of the same description; and the judicial system of Great Britain is constituted upon this principle. The king's bench may, on writ of error, revise the decisions and correct the errors of the common pleas; the exchequer chamber, consisting of the judges of the common pleas and court of exchequer, may revise those of the king's bench; and the court of exchequer chamber, consisting of the lord chancellor and lord treasurer, with the judges of the king's bench and common pleas, may revise those of the common law courts of exchequer; and from all these, as also from the court of chancery, the equity side of the court of exchequer, and from the superior courts of Scotland and Ireland, actions may be carried, by writ of error or appeal, to the house of lords, the highest judicial tribunal in the kingdom.—The judges of cuch of the courte of king bench, common pleas and exchequer are usually four; and this number is so well established by usage, that the expression the "twelve judges of England" is used to signify the court of exchequer

chamber already mentioned, including all the judges of these courts, But the numher of these judges has, as we learn from Mr. Wooddeson, sometimes been five, and again, at others, less than four, therehaving been but two in the beginning of Trinity term, 1655, in Cromwell's time, in the king's bench, then called the upper The judges anciently held their bench. office during the pleasure of the king; but new, by the statutes of 12 and 13 of Wilhun III, chap. 2, and 1 George III, chap. 23, during good behavior; and their commissions do not expire on the demise of the crown. When the judges of either of the 'courts are equally divided, a meeting of the twelve judges is held in the exchequer chamber, to consult on the matter.

The house of lords, in its character of a judicial court, is the highest tribunal in the kingdom, to which civil actions are carried, by writ of error, from the two' courts of error already mentioned, as held in the exchequer chamber,, and from the court consisting of the twelve judges; also from the king's bench, from which latter court some actions may be carried, as we have already seen, to the court of exchequer chamber; but the party aggrieved by the judgment of the king's bench has his election, in actions of that description, to go musa diately to the house of Drds, if he so chooses. So civil actions may be brought befor, this court by appeal from the chancery and therequity side of the exchequer, and by writ of error or by appeal from the highest courts of Scotland and heland. Actions were formerly brought, in the first instance, before the aula regis, to which, of all its surviving successors, the house of lords bears the greatest resemblance; and petitions continued to be presented to the house of lords, from the reign of Edward I to that of Henry VI, to take cognizance of suits in the first instance; but the lords umformly referred the pentioners to the other courts; and they entertain no civil action except on appeal or writ of error. The practice of bringing seases, by writ of error, from the courts of common law, has prevailed ever since the establishment of those courts; but appeals from the court of chancery are of later date, having commenced in the latter part of the reign of Charles I, after the court of chancery had succeeded in estabhaling its present extensive jurisdiction against the opposition of the common law The reason commonly given in favor of this right of appeal is, that it ought not to be left to the chancellor to bind the whole property of the Lingdom, by his de-

crees, without any power of revision. The house of lords, also, exercises a very important original crimmal jurisdiction, in re- spect to the person; for all peers, including all the Scotch nobility, whether of the 16 who are members of the house or not, and the queen, duchesses, countesses and baronesses, are exempt from a trial by jury, for treason or telony, being hable to be tried for those crunes only by the house of lords; and they are not only entitled to this mode of trial for these crunes, but are bound to it, and cannot waive it, and put themselves upon trial by jury. In case a peer marries a woman not of noble blood, she is to be tried only by the lords for the above offences; but if she afterwards lose her rank by marrythg a commoner, she ceases to be entitled to this mode of trial. The question does not seem to be fully esculed, whether bishops, who have a seat in the house of lords, must be tried by that body, or are subject to be tried for treason or felony by jury. It has always teen customary, in all capital trials, in the house of lords, for the bishops to withdraw before the taking of the vote of guilty or not guilty; and it is made a question whether they have a right to vote upon that quesnon; and Mr. Wooddeson stems to be of opinion that they have not this right. The reason for this disanction between them and the temporal peers is, that the chanceter of their profession ought to evelude, as well as excuse, them from taking a part in the final decision of a question of life and The proceeding of which we have been speaking is by indictions before this tribanal as a court of judicature, during the session of parliament: and, during the recess of parliament, such trials take place before a court of peers. summoned by the lord high steward, consisting of not less than 35 peers, who formerly might be summoned at the decretion of that officer; but, to avaid the abuses to which such a power might be hable, the storute of 7 and 8 William III. chap. 3, provides that all the peers shall be summoned to attend. A majority of 12 is necessary in order to a conviction in this court. The last trial before this court, up to the present time (1830), was that of lord Delamere, in the reign of James II. There is still another form of proceeding before this tribunal, as a court of judicuture, namely, that by impeachment by the house of commons, which suggested the trial before the senate of the U. States, on impeachment by the house of representatives, and similar trials by the senates in the separate states. Im-

peachments may be made, in Great Brit ain, against any person and for any masdemeanor, though it is a mode of accusation ordinarily adopted only against public officers in relation to some abuse of then trusts; as the trial of Warren Hastings, for alleged maladministration as governor of India, which lasted for seven years. As all these judical proceedings, both civil and criminal, are analogous to those of other courts, they are not dissolved by the prorogation or dissolution of the parhament; and though, in the ordinary business of legislation, any peer may vote by proxy, he cannot so vote in his judicial capacity. At the first view, it would seem to admit of a question whether a body constituted like that of the house of lords would be the best calculated to act as the judicial tribunal of ultimate jurisdiction, but it is to be considered, that the chancell or, who is necessarily one of the ablest law officers of the kingdom, presides in all the civil trials, and in those and all other cases the judges of the superior courts and the attorney-general are preent, and their opinions are taken on all difficult questions. The court, therefore, combines the collected wisdom, talent, tearning and digmy of the kingdow. Bills of ettainder, and or pains and penarties, an anomalous kind of jurisdiction, is also exercised by parhament, as constituted for the ordinary praposes of legislation, consisting of the lang, lords and commons, who, by their concurrent voices have occasionally acted as judges, in particular cases of the same time making the last, if they choose, and punishing the offer ce (aheady committed) for which the law is made. This is one kind of er post facto has prohibited to congress by the constitution of the T. States; the abuses to which this power has been subject having impressed upon the framers of that instrument the strong necessity of guarding against its exercise. When a bill of this description was introduced into the housof lords, m. 1820, against the queen, Mr. Brougham commenced the defence by urging objections to this mode of proceeding many case. Though such a bill is passed like any other in parhament, ye witnesses may be examined, and the party heard by counsel, as in any trial before a judicial tribunal.

Admirally Courts. The admirally court, in England, is coeved at least, pachaps an terior, to the others in its origin, as we meet with it in the most remote periods of the judicial history of the country. This court formerly maintained a long

and arduous, and, in some respects, an unsuccessful struggle for jurisdiction against the common law courts, in which strife it was encumbered with the disadvantage of being allied, m its forms of proceeding, to the ecclesiastical courts; since both these descriptions of judicial tribunals, as well as the chancery, borrow their forms of process from the civil law; and they, therefore, had formerly to encounter the prejudices of the nation, which set very strongly against the civil law, as associated with the papal usurpations. By a compurson with the French courts, we shall see how much the jurisdiction of the British admiralty has been curtailed. The French code assigns the jurisdiction of prize questions to a distinct court. The imbunals of commerce have jurisdiction of all disputes relative to engagements and transactions between merchants, traders and bankers, and all commercial contracts or affairs, viz., purchases of goods for the purpose of selling them, either in the same state or after labor done upon them, and agreements for hiring the use of chattels all undertakings in manuface tures for commissions, or for transportation by land or water; all agreements for supplying provisions, and for agencies; all those relating to sale by auction; all operations of banking, exchange and brokerage; all those of the public banking companies; all obligations between metchants, traders and bankers; all bills of exchange, or remittances of money between whatever persons; all agreements for the purchase, building, sale-or resale of vessels, used either in foreign or domestic trade; all maritime undertakings; every purchase or sale of rigging, apparel or provisions for vessels; agreements for freight or charter-party; loans on bottomry, or respondentia; contracts of insurance, or other contracts respecting marme commerce; every contract with scamen in regard to their services on board of merchant vessels. The boundaries of the jurisdiction of the corresponding courts in England and the U. States are much narrower, and the reasons and principles on which its extent has been settled, are, as stated in the reports, involved in the greatest confusion, obscurity and contradiction, as is fully shown in the learned and profound investigation of the subject by judge Story, in the case of The Lovio against Boit, in the 1st volume of Gallison's Reports. The judge of the high court of admiralty in England holds his office by two commissions. (See the article Admirally Courts.) It does not appear that the Eng-

lish admiralty ever had a jurisdiction commensurate with that of the present French tribunals of commerce; but it does appear that a part of that which it formerly enjoyed has been extorted from it by the common law courts. In a great part of what now remains to it, the common law courts have a concurrent jurisdiction. As a prize court, the admiralty has retained its jurisdiction unimpaired; and it is in the administration of this branch of the jurisdiction, for the most part, that sir William Scott (since lord Stowell), has shed! so much splendor upon his court, and given so many profound and luminous expositions of the law of nations and of commerce. In regard to the other branches, of its jurisdiction, all piracies, robberies and felonies committed on the high seas, are exclusively within its cognizance, and they are tried, not according to the forms of the civil law, but, by the statute of the 28th year of Henry VIII, in the same manner as similar offences committed on land are tried by the courts of common In respect to numer offences, it has a concurrent jurisdiction with the common law courts. In matters of commerce, these latter courts have, in the most important subjects, a jurisaction exclusive of the admiralty; as, for example, over bills of exchange, promissory notes, charter-parties, bills of lading, and policies of insurance. In others, the jurisdiction is again concurrent, as in respect to victualling and 'repairing ships, mariners' wages, hypothecation of the ship or goods by instruments of bottomry, or respondentia. In matters of salvage, or the recovery, at sea, of lost goods, the jurisdiction is in the admiralty; and so are also questions of seamen's wages; and it is resorted to for the purpose of enforcing hens against the ship, as in bottomry or suits for marmers' wages. It has also jurisdiction of all stipulations made by the parties to a suit in reference to the subject of dispute in a case pending in the court; as, for example, where the goods, which are the subject of controversy, are dehivered to one party on his agreement, in the nature of a recognizance, to answer for their value in case the opposite party prevails; in which case execution is forthwith issued on the supulation. The admiralty jurisdiction of the courts of the U. States is adopted into the American from the English laws.

Court of Chancery. (See Equity).

Ecclesiastical Courts. There are still subsisting in England divers ecclesiastical courts, of which the most important jurisdiction remaining is that relating to the

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goods of persons deceased, which belongs ops of Canterbury and York, if the deceased leaves goods to the amount of £5 (bond . notabilia) in two different dioceses; otherwise it belongs to the court of the bishop of the diocese. But much of the business of administering upon and determining the distribution of the estates of persons deceased passes into the court of chancery, under its jurisdiction of trusts; a large amount of property in Great Britain being put in trust under grants and wills.

COURTS OF THE U.STATES. By the constitution of the U. States, which went into operation in the year 1789, a limited extent of judicial power was confided to the government of the umon, the nature of which will be best explained by quoting the very words in which it is given. The third article of the constitution declares, 1. that "The judicial power of the U. States shall be vested in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the congress may, from time to time, ordain and establish. The judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office." 2. "The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity ansing under this constitution, the laws of the V. States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority :—to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction :—to controversies to which the U. States shall be a party:—to controverses between two or more states; between a state and entizens of another state; between citizens of different states; between citizens of the same state claiming lands under grants of different states; and between a state, or the entirens thereof, and foreign states, edizens or subjects." "In all cases affecting ambassidors, other public manisters and consuls, and those in . which a state shall be a party, the supreme . court shall have original purisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the supreme court shall have appellate juris-· diction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations, as the congress shall make." It is observable, that this enumeration of the various classes of cases to which the judicial power may extend, does not make it imperative upon congress to vest the whole jurisdiction in courts created by the general government; but leaves much to the discretion of congress, as to the establishment

of courts, and the jurisdiction with which to the prerogative courts of the archbish- they shall be clothed. In point of fact, congress has never legislated to the extent of the judicial power authorized by the constitution. Some branches of it remain undisposed of; and the courts of the several states are left to act upon them as matters not exclusively confided to the courts of the U. States. At the first session of congress, under the constitution. the organization of the judicial establishmeht was made, which has substantially remained in force ever since. By a statute passed Sept. 24, 1789, a supreme court was created, consisting of a chief justice and five associate justices, since increased to six; and two classes of inferior courts, viz., circuit courts and district courts, were also created. All the judges of the courts of the U. States are appointed by the president, by and with the consent of the senate of the U. States, and cannot otherwise be appointed.—We will now proceed to give a summary view of each of these courts, beginning with those which ar the lowest in point of rank, and of the first instance.

> 1. The District Courts. Each state n the confederacy constitutes at least one judicial district, and the states of New York, Pennsylvania and Virginia are divided lato two districts by certain local limits. In each district, a court is appointed to hold sessions, consisting of a single judge. The district courts possess criminal jurisdiction, exclusively of the state courts, of all crimes and offences against the C. States, where the panashment of whipping, not exceeding 30 stripes (which is now generally abolished), or a fine not exceeding \$100, or a term of unprisonment not exceeding 6 months, is to be inflicted. It also possesses civil piresdiction of all civil causes of admiralty and maratime purisdiction; that is, of suits upon mantime contracts and maritime torts. of seizures in rem, and of suits in personame for penalties and forfeitures incurred under the laws of the U. States; of all causes where an then sues for a tort only. in violation of the law of nations, or a treaty of the U. States; of all suits at conmon law, where the government of the 1. States suc, or any officer thereof sucs, under the authority of any act of congress, whatever may be the matter in dispute; and of all suits against consuls and viceconsuls. The district courts also possess the jurisdiction of circuit courts in those districts where no circuit courts are held, and also certain limited authorities under special laws.

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2. The Circuit Courts. The U. States are now divided into seven circuits, in each of which a court is held, called a circuit court. It consists of two judges, one of whom is a justice of the supreme court of the U. States, and the other is the district judge of the particular district in which the court sits. The court may be 'held by either judge in the absence of the other; but the district judge cannot try causes brought by appeal from his own decisions. Each circuit consists of at least two states, and some of three states, and one of four states. There are six states in which no circuit court sits; and there the like duties are performed by the district judges. The circuit courts possess origmal jurisdiction in all civil suits at common law, or in equity, where the matter, in dispute is of the sum or value of \$500, or upwords, and the U. States are plantitls; or where an alien is a party; or where the suit is between a citizen of the state where the suit is brought, and a citizen of another state. They also possess jurisdiction in cases of patents for useful inventions, and of copyrights for books; &c. They have also exclusive jurisdicnon of all crimes and offences against the U. States, not cogmzable in the district courts; and concurrent jurisdiction with those courts of all crimes and offences eognizable therem. They have appellate jurisdiction of all final judgments and decrees of the district courts, in all cases where the matter in dispute exceeds \$50. Civil suits can be brought in the circuit and district courts, by original process, against an inhabitant of the U. States, only m the district whereof he is an inhabitant, or in which, at the time of serving the process, he may be found; and, in cases of negotiable securities for money, except foreign bills, these courts campot, by any transfer or assignment of such securities, manuam prosdiction, unless their jurisdietion could have attached independent of such transfer or assignment. If a suit is commenced in a state court against an alien or citizen of another state, and the matter in dispute exceed \$500, it may be removed into the circuit court, which sits in the same state, and tried there accordmg to certain regulations prescribed by law; and a like removal may take place where, in a suit in the state court, the parties claim title to lands under a grant. thereof from different states, that is, where one party claims title under the state in which the suit is brought, and the other -under another state.

3. The Supreme Court consists of seven

judges, as above stated. It sits annually at the seat of government, on the 2d Monday of January. It possesses exclusive original jurisdiction of all controversies of a civil nature, where a state is a party, except between a state and its citizens, and except, also, between a state and citizens of other states and aliens, in which latter case it has original but not exclusive jurisdiction. It possesses also, exclusively, all such jurisdiction of suits and proceedings against ambassadors, and other public mmisters, or their domestics, or domestic servants, as, a court of law can have or exercise consistently with the law of nations; and original, but not exclusive jurisdiction of all suits brought by ambassadors, or other public ministers, or in which a consul or vice-consul is a party. It possesses, also, appellate jurisdiction from the final judgments and decrees of the circuit courts, and of the district courts, exercising circuit court powers, in all civil cases where the matter in dispute exceeds , \$2000 m value or amount, and the causes were originally brought in or removed into such circuit or district courts. It has also jurisdiction in cases brought by way of appeal into the encurt court from the district courts (which word appeal has here a technical and somewhat peculiar sense), but not in cases brought by writs of error from the district courts into the circuit courts This difference is more accidental than intentional, and proceeds from the different modes of process by which suits are brought into the appeliate courts according to the course of the common law. The terms of the statute conferring the jurisdiction are supposed to limit the appellate jurisdiction to cases which did not get into the circuit courts by the process of a writ of error, in its technical sense. It is difficult to make the distinction clear to lawyers bred in the civil law; it is obvious to those bred in the common law. The supreme cotat also possesses appellate purisdiction from the final decisions of the state courts, in cases in which there is drawn in question the validity of a treaty or statute of, or an authority exercised under, the U. States, and the state court decides against its validity; or where is drawn in question the validity. of a statute of, or an authority exercised under, any state, on the ground of its being repugnant to the constitution, treaties or laws of the U. States, and the decision, is in favor, of its validity; or . where is drawn in question the construction of any clause of the constitution, or of a treaty or statute of, or commission

held under, the U. States, and the decision of the great constitutional questions, which, is against the title, right, privilege or exemption specially set up or claimed by either party, under such clause of the constitution, treaty, statute or commission. The appellate jurisdiction, however, so exercised in these cases, coming from the state courts, is confined to the points above-mentioned, and does not extend to the other ments of the case, not connected therewith, nor flowing therefrom. From this sketch, it will be perceived that the supreme court exercises, or may exercise, jurisdiction in the following classes of cases:-1. In cases where the construction of the constitution, treaties and statutes of the U. States is involved; 2. in cases where the state laws are supposed to be inconsistent with the constitution, treaties or laws of the U. States; 3. in Gases of rights derived under the constitution, treaties or laws of the U. States; 4. in cases where a state is a party to the suit, or a foreign ambas-ador, or minister, or consul, or vice-consul: 5. m cases of controversies of a civil nature between aliens and citizens, or between citizens of one state and citizens of another state; 6. m cases of admiralty and maritime juri-As a general description, this is sufficiently precise for the common read-The supreme court has authority, also, in various other modes, to exercise a supervision over the acts of inferior tribunals; as, by granting writs of mandamus, to direct them to do their duty in certain cases; by granting writs of prohibition, where they exceed their authority; by granting writs of habeas corpus, to relieve parties from unjust imprisonment, &c. &c. In cases also where no appeal hes to the supreme court, the judges of the circuit courts are allowed to obtain the opinion of the supreme court, by certifying cases to that court, in which they are divided in opinion. This course is often pursued in important and difficult questions, both of civil and criminal law, and in the latter especially, because, in cruninal cases, the supreme court has no direct appellate jurisdiction. The general mass of business, which employs the supreme court, consists of private controverses respecting property, or personal rights and contracts. In times of war, it also exercises a final appellate jurisdiction in prize causes, and other causes in which belligerent and neutral rights and duties are involved. For the most part, questions of national and public law are there finally discussed and settled. Its most important function, how-ever, in a practical view, is the decision

from time to time, arise in the different, parts of the Union. These questions are not brought forward, in a formal manner, by the government itself, to be adjudged upon a mere reference of them to the court. The court cannot take cognizance of them in such a shape, but only in a suit regularly brought before it, in which the point arises, and is essential to the rights of one of the parties. Hence it happens that a private person may litigate any question respecting the constitutionality of a law of the national or state government, whenever it is connected with his own rights, which are in controversy m a suit. Such a person may not only litigate the constitutionality of such law-, independently of the government, but even against the will of the government: and it not unfrequently happens that such questions are discussed and decided without the government having any opportumty of interposing itself in the discussion The constitution is deemed the supreme law of the land, which rulers, and magistrates, and legislatures are bound to obey; and if, unintentionally or otherwise, they overleap the proper boundary, and the supreme court so decide, the act of the legislatures or rulers becomes a mere nullity, and receives no sanction or support whatsoever. It may naturally be supposed, that, in many instances, such questions must involve interests of a public nature to a vast extent, as well as contests respecting the just exercise of political power, and thus give rise to very heated discussions, and sometimes to violent political struggles, which might threaten the very existence of the national government. But hitherto, however warm have been the preliminary controversies, and however important the rights to state sovereignty or state pride, the decisions of the supreme. court have been universally respected Indeed, the people are so well satisfied, that the great security of their civil and political liberies essentially depends upon the independent exercise of this great function, and the supreme court is accustomed to expound its opinion with so much fulness and moderation, that no instance has occurred, in which a great majority of the nation has not hitherto rested satisfied with the decision. Such is the suffernacy of law in the U. States. If it be asked, in what respects the supremecourt of the U. States differs, in its finetions and organization, from the highest courts of England, the following will be found the most important particulars:-

1. In England, the prize and admiralty son, but excluding the English law of the common law jurisdiction, are severally intrusted to distinct courts. The supreme court of the U. States exercises all these jurisdictions, as, indeed, do the circuit courts. 2. The highest courts in England have a general jurisdiction as to all per-. sons and all suits. The supreme court of the U. States has a limited and restricted jurisdiction over particular persons only, and particular classes of suits. 3. The courts in England have no jurisdiction over constitutional questions: an act of parliament is an act of uncontrollable sovereignty, which all courts must obey and 4. The courts in England do not exercise jurisdiction in cases between state sovereignties; or, if they do, it is a very limited and incidental jurisdiction. In many particulars, the highest courts in England and the supreme court of the U. State's exercise the same powers substantrally in the same way. In the first place, the general system of jurisprudence to be administered by them is, in most respects, the same. The common law governs in England. It constitutes the general basis of the jurisprudence of all the states in the Union, with the exception of Louisiana, where the civil law prevails, as it did while that territory belonged to France and Spain. The common law is, indeed, modified by the legislation of the several states, according to their pleasure, as it is by the parliament in England; and, in some of the states, there are some customs and peculiarities which grew up in early times. But they are few, and, in a general sense, unimportant. The statutes passed by the states, and the judicial constructions of interpretations of them, constitute the principal peculiarities of what is denomi-

nated local law; and these are far more umform than at first thought would be

supposed. The original circumstances of the colomes were not, as to most political and municipal arrangements, materially different. Inheriting from England the

common law, they generally adopted such

amendments of it as were, from time to

time, made in the mother country; and, in their colonial legislation, they borrowed

from each other such portions of the statutes, which were enacted and in use, as

were suited to their own wants. Hence, at an early day, in almost all the colonics,

they enseted nearly uniform laws as to the making of wills, as to registering of con-

veyances of lands, as to the descent of estates among all the children, giving, in

some cases, a double share to the eldest

jurisdiction, the equity jurisdiction, and primogeniture. The system of land law, that is, the system adopted in relation to the sale and distribution of the public lands belonging to the states, constitutes, at this very time, a more important feature of difference in the legislation, and judicial interpretation of rights to landed property, than any other in the whole code of positive law. It may naturally be presumed. teo, that, though the common law was the general basis of the jurisprudence of all the states, yet, in the course of time, the judicial interpretations thereof, especially when there were no printed reports, might essentially vary in the different states, in many cases; and that these diversities, as well from the different talents and acquirements of the judges, as from the uncertainty of many of the principles of docasion, might, create other heads of local It would surprise a foreigner, however, to learn how few, comparatively The regular speaking, these now are. publication of reports; the desire to give uniformity to the system; the influence of the decisions in the mother country and in the national courts, have a powerful operation upon the whole profession m this respect, and the more powerful and beneficial; because it is silent and insensible. In this way, it conduces to a general harmony and coincidence in the administration of the law, by the gentle means of juridical reasoning and argument. From this general prevalence of the common law, the decisions made from time to time in England are cited in the discussions in the American courts, not as absolute authornes, but as very able expositions of the law; and, on that account, they are generally adopted. In the next place, the modes of administering justice are the same in the courts of the U. States as they are in England in like cases. In the prizeand admiralty proceedings, the principles and practice of the English courts of admiralty are adopted; in equity causes, the principles and practice of the court of chancery in England; in suits at common lay, the principles and practice of the courts of commendam in England. There are no courts in America which possess a general jurisdiction in ecclesiastical affairs, like the ecclesiastical courts in England; . . for, in America, there is no church establishment. But the business of the probate of wills, and granting administration on the estate of deceased persons, and appointing guardians to mmors and others, is generally confided to orphan courts, or probate courts, exercising a jurisdiction

over these subjects very similar to the summary jurisdiction exercised by the evclesiastical courts in England over the same subjects. The jurisprudence in América, then, not being entirely homoge-· neous, the supreme court, in the exercise · of its jurisdiction, has an invariable regard to the local law, where it applies, and, consequently, is called upon to administer justice in many cases of a conflict of laws. In this part of its functions, it acts upon the same general principles which regulate, or ought to regulate, the tribunals of other independent states. It acts upon the same principles which the English courts would act upon: but it is called more frequently to decide on such questions, and therefore it refers more, as guides in its decisions, to the civil law writers, who have discussed this complicated subject with ability and learning. Indeed, it may be stated as a general fact, that the American courts, in questions of public and commercial law, are in the habit of paying great attention to the works of the continental jurists. The supreme court of the U. States exercises no political functions whatsoever, except the administration of public and prize law, and the decision of constitutional questions. may be so considered. It is wholly independent of the executive government, the judges holding their offices during good behavior, and receiving a salary which cannot be dimmashed during their continuance in office. The present salary of the chief justice is \$5000, and that of each of the other judges, \$4500. They are hable to impeachment for high crimes and imsdemeanors before the senate of the U. States, and, upon conviction by two thirds of the members present, are hable to be removed from office. Cases of impeachment of public others are exclusively \*trable before the senate; and, when the president of the U. States is on and, the chief juxtice of the U. States is required by the constitution to preside. As to the modes of tual: In cases of impeachment, as has been already stated, the trial is before the senate, without any jury. trial of all crimes, in other cases, is required by the constitution to be by jury. So is the trial of all civil suits at common law, where the value in controversy exceeds \$20. And, in all cases where the facts are tried by a jury, their verthet, as to the facts, has the conclusiveness given it by the common law of England. In admiralty and prize causes, and in equity causes, the questions of fact, as well as of law, are decided by the court, as they are

decided in the English courts. The general practice, in the trials by jury, is the same as in England. The mode of appointing and selecting the jurors is not uniform. In some of the states, the marshal or sheriff selects them; in others, they are drawn out of ballot boxes, which contain the names of all the persons whom the municipal authorities deem qualified to sit as jurors. The selections thus made usually embrace a very large proportion of the voters; and as many are selected and returned for a particular session of the court as the court deems the occasion to require. In some states, the same jurors sit in all causes tried at the same term; in others, a distinct jury is, or may be, returned for each cause. The courts of the U. States, sitting in any particular district, follow the local practice as to the selection of juries.' In all criminal trials, the constitution guaranties to the party accused a public trial, upon a written mdictment or accusation, a right to be confronted with the witnesses brought against. him, and to have compulsive process for the attendance of his own witnesses, and a right to have the assistance of counsel or lawyers in his defence. The statutes of the U. States generally secure to him, in civil cases, the same privileges, except that depositions of witnesses may be used therein, in certain cases, whore the we messes caughot attend by reason of infineny, or distance of place, &c. The power of pardon is exclusively confided to the president of the L. States. The judges have no express authority to recommer d any person, after conviction, for a pardon: but, where the case requires it, it is not unflequently done by them, as private persons, upon their own responsibility and sense of justice. Itemay be asked, Who determine finally what causes do or do not belong to the jurisdiction of the courts of the  $U_{\gamma}$  States? The general answer should be, that the court, before which the suit is brought, must, in the first instance, decide that question for itself; and it is imally to be decided by the highest court to which an appeal lies from that court. If it depend on matter of fact, the fact is ascertained in the usual way in which other facts are ascertained in cases of a like nature; if it depend on matter of law, then the court primarily decides on its own view of the law. In general, the judgments and decrees of wourts of competent jurisdiction are held conclusive in the U. States, as they are in England. Few conflicts, as to jurisdiction, affse in the American courts, as, for the most part,

the jurisdiction of the state courts is concurrent with that of the U. States courts in civil cases; and where it is not, the hne of exclusive jurisdiction is broadly. marked out. For instance, the admiralty and prize jurisdiction is exclusive in the courts of the U. States; but in controversies between citizens of different states, the jurisdiction is concurrent. One state cannot sue another in its own courts. The suit must be in the supreme court of the U. States. The courts of the U. States, like the courts in England, have general authority to make rules for the orderly course of their business, to issue writs and executions, to take bail, to grant injunctions, to permit amendments, to punish for contempts, &c., in the same way as the courts in England. Writs and executions do not run, that is to say, cannot be executed, beyond the limits of the particular district in which the court sits, with a few exceptions, among which are subpanas for witnesses and executions on judgments in suits in favor of the U. States. There are various sorts of process to compel the performance of judgments, as in England. Such are writs of feri facias, on which the goods and chattels of the debtor or defendant may be taken or sold; writs of levari facias, on winch his lands may be taken for a term : writs of capias, on which his person may be arrested and unprisoned; and other wras, on which his lands may be taken and sit off to the creditor, at an appraised value, or sold at public auction. In crimihad cases, the courts of the U. States direct the punishment against the party accordng to the rules prescribed by the law. If the punishment is death, the court, before winch the trial is had, declares the time and place when and where the execution of it shall take place. If the punishment is discretionary, as by fine, or by imprisomnent, or by fine not exceeding a certain sam, or by imprisonment not exceeding a certain period of time, the court fixes the fine, or imprisonment, or both, in its sen-: nee, according to the circumstances of each particular case. As all trials, both civil and crimmal, are public, and reports are printed, from time to time, of those which are most interesting either as to law or facts; as the opinion of the court is always publicly given, and, generally, the reasons of that opinion it is not easy for any court to trespass upon the known principles of law or the rights of the par-In the U. States, as in England, the citizens at large watch with jealousy the proceedings of courts of justice. The very

great number of lawyers engaged in the profession also furmshes an additional security. The rules of admission to the bar are not very strict; and usually, after: three years' preparatory study, any citizen ' of good education and character is admissible to the inferior courts, and, after two or three years' practice there, is admissible to the highest courts: Generally speaking, lawyers are entitled to the same privileges, upon the same terms, in the U. States courts, as in the state courts. · Few but eminent lawyers, in fact, practise in the supreme court of the U. States, although the admission to it is quite easy. Throughout the U. States, the bar of the highest courts is characterized by learning and talent, a spirit of independence and integrity, and a manliness of conduct, which give it great weight and popularity. Lawyers, more than any other class, are the favorité candidates for seats in the legislative and executive departments of the government,-The foregoing sketch is necessarily imperfect; but it may give the common reader a general outline of the jurisprudence and organization of the national courts, as contradistinguished from the State courts. To treat the subject with the fulness which belongs to it, would require a volume.

COURTS OF THE SEVERAL STATES IN THE UNITED STATES. The limits of this work will not permit a particular account of all the courts of the several states in the Union. In some respects, their judicial systems correspond with each other. The office of justice of the peace is very similar in all, the general police of the counties being confided mostly to these magistrates. They generally have authority to cause offenders and crimmals, and all disturbers of the peace, to be arrested, and, if the offence is small, to fix its punishment; if it falls without their jurisdiction, they commit the offenders to prison, to be detained for trial before the proper tribunals. But for all considerable offences, the parties are hable to be put upon trial only on a bill being found against them by a grand jury. In the county courts of sessions, the as-Sembled justices, or a select number of them, in many of the states, have a pretty extensive jurisdiction in matters of police, in the regulation of the affairs of the county, such as building court-houses, assessing county taxes, laying out roads, heensing taverns and victualling houses, and, in some states, granting the right to erect mills, and settling the questions of damages thereby occasioned. In Virginia, the county sessions have a still more ex-

tensive jurisdiction, both civil and criminal, the civil jurisdiction extending to suits in which an amount not exceeding - \$300 is in dispute; and, though a vast. amount of the business of both descriptions comes into these courts, the justices discharge all their duties without fees, and this paternal, friendly superintendence of the general interests of the county is supposed to have a very salutary influence eral superintendence of the police, and maintenance of the peace and good order of the community, exercised by the jus- tices individually or collectively, they have, in most of the states, a jurisdiction of civil actions to amounts varying from \$13 to \$100, reserving to the parties a right to appeal, and have a new trial before the county sessions or county courts of common pleas, or some other superior tri-Sunals, in cases where the sum in dispute exceeds a certain amount. In some states, there is a right of appeal in case the amount of \$4 or more is in dispute: in others, the final jurisdiction of the justices extends to a greater sum; in Massachusetts, to \$20; and there is a distinction, m some states, in the local extent of the civil and criminal jurisdiction of justices, the former extending only to the town in which the magistrate resides, the latter to the whole county. In some of the capitals and more considerable towns, special courts are established, to which is assigned the jurisdiction of many of the offences and suits, which, in the counties, generally come under the cognizance of the justices, individually or collectively. In all the states, another class of county courts is established, variously denominated,courts of common pleas; county, district or circuit courts,—which have original jarisdiction of the great mass of civil actions at law, or indictments for crimes not capital; and over these are established the superior or supreme courts, or courts of errors br appeals. In some states, the county cours for trials by jury are held by one of the judges of the supreme · court, and all questions of law are reserved for the determination of all the judges. In others, the judge of the supreme court, who presides in trials by jury, in the counties, is assisted by associate justices: this is the case in Maryland. In other states, trials by jury are held in the counties by a court of which the jurisdiction is limited to the county; and, in case of the amount in dispute exceeding a certain sun, varying, in the different states, from \$100 to \$300, or in cases involving land

titles, and some others, either party may appeal, and have another trial of the same facts, by jury, before a judge of the superior court. This trial of the same facts a second time, by jury, without the allegation of any error or misdirection on the first trial, or any surprise on the part of either of the litigants, or any discovery of new evidence, or, indeed, any other reason than to give the parties opportunity upon the community. Besides this geg- ofor another contest, upon precisely the same footing as the first, is an anomaly. It is, in effect, an appeal from one jury to another, for which there might be more reason if juries were, like courts, differently constituted, so that one should be considered superior to the other; but this is not the case, the juries in both courts being selected upon the same principles. This is a feature of some of the state courts, by which they are distinguished from the English courts, and also from those of the U. States. A similar practice prevails, in some of the states, in crimmal trials, except for felomes or the more heinous offences, of which the superior court has original and exclusive cognizance. This right to two toals of the same case, in the same state of it, though theoretically an arregularity not easily reconciled to any principle, is yet not the cause of any very serious inconvenience in practice, for very few of those actions in which the parties have a right to two trials are, in fact, tried more than once. The equity jurisdiction is in a distinct court in some of the states, as New York, Maryland, Virginia; in others, the same courts act as courts of law and equity, as in Massachusetts, Olno, North Carolina; and there is a great diversity in the extent of equity jurisdiction possessed by the courts, those of Pennsylvama, for instance having very circumscribed powers; and in the New England states, excepting Connecticut, the prejudices against equity courts and proceedmgs derived from some of the old common law writers, particularly lord Coke, · have taken deep root, and are the more difficult to cradicate, as they have no defimte foundation, but rest upon a vague notion of the delays supposed to be necessarily attendant upon chancery proceedmgs, and the still more groundless notion that a court of chancery proceeds, without any regard to the law or to principles, upon the mere arbitrary discretion of the judge. These prejudices are, however, gradually wearing away, and the remedies, which can only be obtained by proceedings in equity, are from time to time introduced by successive legislative acts.

## County of the Several U.States County be seperal on

In all the states in which the two species trees as you approach or approach as you of courts are distinguished, the tribunal retire?" "Who suffers most, a husband of final resort, as in England, is the same whose wife one level and the same whose whose wife one level and the same whose whos In all the states in which the two species equity. There is established, in the city of New York, a tribunal called the marine \*court, having jurisdiction of marine torts and questions between masters of vessels and their crews; but, in general, all subjects of commercial and maritime jurisdiction, not belonging exclusively to the courts of the U. States, but remaining in the state tribunuls, either exclusively or concurrently with the courts of the U. States-such as bills of exchange, bills of lading, charter-parties, policies of insurance, claims for seamen's wages, claims for contributions in general average, and maritime torts—are within the jurisdiction of the same courts which have cognizance of other contracts, and torts of similar amounts. In most of the states, the jurisdiction of the subject of wills, and granting administration on the estates of persons deceased intestate, and the appointing of guardians to minors, is assigned to certain tribunals, denominated courts of probate, orphans' courts, sometimes the register's court; and, in one state, a part of this jurisdiction is vested in the court of These courts are held in the ordinary. the several counties. An appeal lies from them, generally, to the higher thbunals. In some states, the sessions of the tribunal of final resort are held only at the capital: m others, again, the sessions are held in the several counties, one session or more in the year being devoted, in each county, to the determination of questions of law, for which purpose all the judges make a circuit of the state in a hody.

COURT-MARTIAL. (See Martial Law.) Courts or Lova (cours d'amour, corfi d'amore). In the chivalric period of the middle ages, when love was not satisfied with remaining a cherished secret of the heart, but stood forth to public view; when enamored knights were ambitious to draw the attention of the world, and prove the ardor of their passion, by deeds of daring; when ladies were the soul and ornament of the tourney; and love, in short, was the serious business of life ' among the higher classes of society,-subtle questions on topics of gallantry were discussed in mixed companies, and often made subjects of poetical competition by the Broubadours or poets in their tensons; such, for example, as the following: "Which is most easy to be endured, the death or inconstancy of a mistress?" "Should you rather see me leave your mis-

of final resort, as in England, is the same "whose wife, or a lover whose mistress, is appeals from courts both of law and unfaithful?" At this period, when love At this period, when love; was regarded as the source of nobleness of character; when even bishops sung its praises, and the uncultivated and unocoupied minds of a feudal nobility were at. a loss for, intellectual entertainment, the doubts and difficulties which grew out of. the belle passion led to the institution of courts of love. The first was probably established in Provence, about the 12th century. These courts were composed . of knights, poets and ladies, who gave their decisions us arrêts d'amour, after the manner of the parliaments. In 1803, Christopher von Arctin published a collection of these decisions from ancient manuscripts. There is likewise an older col-lection of 'them, by Martial d'Auvergne. This species of amusement was so popplace without a contest in a cour d'amour. These courts reached their highest splendor, in France, under Charles VI, through the influence of his consort, Isabella of Bavaria, whose court was established in 1380? (See Die Minnehöfe des Mittelalters und ihre Entscheidungen oder Aussprücke, &c., Leipsic, 1821.) Under Louis XIV. an academy of love was instituted by cardinal Richelieu (assemblie galante) at Ruel. It was an imitation of the courts of love. The princess Maria of Gonzaga presided, and mademoiselle Scudery was attorneygeneral. We conclude with the interesting decision, somewhat at variance with the notions of our times, given by the countess of Champagne on the question, "Can true love exist between husband and wife?" The "opinion" was : Nous disons et assurons, par la teneur des présentes, que : l'amour ne peut étendre ses droits sur deux; personnes mariées. En effet, les amants s'accordent tout mutuellement et gratuitement. sans être contraints par aucune nécessité, tandis que les époux sont tenus par devoir de subir réciproquement leurs volontés, et de ne se refuser rien les uns aux autres. Que ce jugement, que nous avons rendu avec une extrême prudence, et d'après l'avis d'un grand nombre d'autres dames, soit pour vous d'une autorité constante et irréfragable. Ainsi jugé, l'an 1174, le troisième jour des oulendes de Mai, indiction septième.

Court de Gébelin, Antoine; born at Nismes in 1724; died at Paris in 1784. His father, a Protestant, left France on the revocation of the edict of Nantes, and repaired to Switzerland. The young Gébelin studied with eagerness the writ-/

VOL. III. 51

ings of the ancients. In his 12th year, he, crudition and zeal. He appears to have of his knowledge. His studies embraced · natural history, mathematics, the dead and hving languages, mythology, antiquities and archeology. After his father's death, he made a journey to Languedoc. where he resigned to his sister his small patrimony, and went himself to Paris. Here he soon became connected with the most distinguished men. After 10 years, he published, from 1773 to 1784, Le Monde Primitif. The learning displayed in this work excited universal admiration. It proves the existence of an original language, and explains the absurdates of mythology. It describes the formation of the first human societies, their laws and customs, and general character. French academy, to assist him in his useful and expensive undertaking, granted him, twice in succession, the prize belonging to the writer who, in the course of the year, had published the most valuable work. Another production of his is the Muséum. Court de Gébelin was remarkable for his amiable and simple manners. He looked with aversion on the quarrels of writers. Towards the elid of his life, he became a believer in animal magnetism, which was at that time much in vogue. He defended Mesmer, the author of the theory, in his Lettre sur le Magnetisme Mindl (Paris, 1784, 4to.), shortly after which he died.

COURTEST, or CURTIST, tenure by. is where a man marries a woman serzed of an estate of inheritance, and has by her issue born alive, which was capable of inheriting her estate. In this case, on the death of his wife, he holds the lands for his life, as tenant by courtesy.

COURTRAY, or CORTRING (angiently Con-·loriacum); a fortified town in the Netherlands, in West Flanders: 22 miles S. W. Ohent, 24 S. Bruges; Jon. 3º 16' F.; lat. 50° 49' N.; population, 15,800. It is situated on the river Lys, and celebrated for its manufacture of table linen and lace. Near Courtray, m 1302, the Flenings, under the command of the count of Namur and William of Juhers, defeated the French, who suffered so severely, that, after the battle, 4000 gilt spurs were found on the field of battle, whence the engagement was called la bataille des éperons. In 1793, the French gained a victory over the English at this place.

Cousin, Victor; born in 1791; one of , the most learned and popular teachers of philosophy in France, who seems to combine the French tact and taste with German

gained the admiration of all by the extent precived his first instruction in philosophy under the distinguished M. Royer-Collard, who resided at Paris during the reign of Napoleon, ostensibly as a private man, though, in fact, as is now generally understood, a sceret agent of the Bourbons. Royer-Collard gave lectures on intellectual and moral philosophy, and first brought into notice, in France, the writers of the modern Scotch school of metaphysics, particularly Reid. Cousin seems not to have been long satisfied with the Edinburgh metaphysicians, and soon devoted himself to the writings of the two nations who have most multifariously investigated intellectual philosophy—the an cient Greeks and modern Germans. He published, for the first time, some works of Proclus, consisting of commentaries on Plato, which were preserved, in manuscript, in the royal library at Paris. After the return of the Bourbons, Royer-Collard was appointed professor of moral philosophy in the university of France, and Cousin was made adjunct professor in the same branch. At a later period, he succeeded his teacher in this chair. But both these gentlemen soon became obnoxious to the royalist party, and were prohibited from lecturing under the admunstration of Villele. Cousm published the first volume of his Philosophical Fragments at Paris in 1820, and travelled to Germany in company with the young duke of Montebello, the son of marshal Lannes. Here the different governments were busily engaged in persecuting the liberals, and the Prussian government took the liberty to send police officers into Saxony, to arrest Cousm in Dresden large volume was afterwards published by the Prussian government to prove the right which they had to commit this act, which most people would call a breach of the law of nations. The philosopher was detained for some time in Berlin, was at last set free, and returned to Paris, where he was replaced in his chair, after the overthrow of Villèle's administration, at the time when Royer-Collard was chosen president of the chamber of deputies; but, on the overthrow of the liberal manistry, and the accession of the ultra royalists under prince Polignac, a committee was appointed to inquire into the tendency of M. Consin's dectures. The result of this inquiry has not as yet reached us. Cousin combines with his learning great skill in teaching, of which he is fond, and brilliant eloquence. His opinions are likely to have much influence on the phi9, 1658, died at Paris, in 1733; and Guillaume Couston, born in 1678, died at Paris, m 1746; two brothers, famous as sculptors, from whose labors in France, during the reign of Louis XV, statuary received a noble impulse. The elder was admired for grandeur of ideas and fine taste. He drew correctly, gave to his figures noble atundes, and splendid and pleasing draperies. His Descent from the Cross, in the cathedral in Paris, is particularly valued. The younger brother was a worthy disciple of the elder, whom he succeeded as director of the academy of fine aris. Among his works, the monument of the cardinal Dubois, in the church St. Honore, is much esteemed. But he was surpassed by his eldest son, also named Guillaume (born at Paris, in 1716, where he died in 1777), on whom Joseph II, during his stay in Paris, conferred, with his own hands, the order of St. Michael.

1828); Cours de Phil. (1829). Couston, Nicholas, born at Lyons, Jan:

majestic samplicity. Courts, Thomas; a London banker, eminent for his wealth and his connex-He was twice married; first to Suman Starkie, a female servant of his brother James, by whom he had three

The statues of Venus and Mars, which he

made in 170), for the king of Prussia,

larger than life, gained universal admira-

tion. His monument of the dauphin and

cathedral of Sens, bears the character of

dauphiness, parents of Louis XVI, in the

losonay of France, as they rest on differ- daughters—Susan, marked, in 1796, to ent principles from the sensual system . George Augustus, third earl of Guilford; ... which his countrymen had derived from, Frances, married, in 1800, to John, first marquis of Bute; and Sophia, married, in 1793, to sir Francis Burdett, bart. In 1815, his first wife died; and, three months, afterwards, he married Harriet Mellon, an actress at the head of the second class of actresses at Drury lane. Mr. Coutts at his death left her all his property, having before given portions to his daughters." Mrs. Courts subsequently married the duke of St. Alban's, a young man, of an income rather limited for his rank, and less, it is said, than that of any other English duke. So unequal a marriage afforded matter of diversion, for a long time, to the English journals. The duchess' is said to be a lady of great benevolence. COVENANT. (See Bond and Contract.)

COVENANT. Soon after the reformation was introduced into Scotland, the Scotch Protestants, being alarmed at the expectation of an invasion from Spain, where the "nameble armada" was preparing, entered into an association (1588); for the defence of their new doctrine, which they called the covenant. After the union of the crowns of Scotland and England (1603), as the Stuarts fivored the episcopal charehes, whose hierarchical form seemed fitted to promote their despote views, the dangers which threatened Presbyterianism brought the followers of Calvin, in Scotland, to a closer union; and wheel, in 1637, the new liturgy, modelled after the English, was ordered to be introduced into their churches, disturbances arose, which ended in the forming of a new covenant the following During the contentions between Charles I and the parliament, the Protestants in Scotland entered into a "solemn" league and covenant" with the English parliament, by which the independence of the Presbyterian churches was con-firmed. But, on the restoration of the Stuarts, the covenant was formally abol-'ished (1661). This, however, only served to confirm the strict Presbyterians in their principles, so that rebellions were frequent. among them, till the establishment of perfect freedom of conscience, in 1689.

COVENTRY; a city in England, of great antiquity, the final syllable being evidently the British Ire, signifying tourn. Parliaments were convened here by the ancient monarchs of England, several of whom occasionally resided in the place. In the civil war of the 17th century, Coventry was conspicuous for its activity in the parliamentary interest. Many of its edifices,

are highly worthy of attention. St. Michael's church is a beautiful specimen of · the pointed style of architecture. There are places of worship for Roman Catholics, Independents, Dissenters, Methodists, Presbyterians, Baptists and Quakers; also various charitable institutions, 2 hospitals, alms-houses and charity schools. principal magnifactures are those of ribbons and watchest Two representatives to parhament are now elected by the freemen, amounting to nearly 4000. · A weekly market is held here on Friday; and there are several fairs, one of which is called the great or show fair, and continues 8 days; on the first day of which is celebrated the grand procession of lady Godiva and her followers. This celebration is founded on the following story:-It is said that Leofric, earl of Mercia, who possessed the property of the tolls and services of Coventry, exacted his dues so rigidly, that the inhabitants were greatly aggrieved, and at length Godiva, lus pious wife, became their advocate. The earl, wearied by her solicitations, promised to grant her request, if she would ride naked through the town at mid-day. His terms, according to the legend, were accepted, and the countess rode through the town with no covering but her flowing presses. It is added that she had modestly commanded every person to keep within doors and away from the windows, on pain of death, but that one person could not for- bear taking a glance, and lost his life for his cariosity. In commemoration of this occurrence, a procession occasionally takes place at the show fair, in which a female of easy purchase rides in a dress of linen closely fitted to her limbs and colored like \*them. The curious person who stole the glance is called Peeping Tom, and a wooden image of him is to be seen on a house in the city. The story has little foundation. It is first mentioned by Matthew of Westmingter, in 1307, that is, 250 years after the time of Leofric and Godiva. Population, 24,242: 49 miles N. W. Oxford.

COVERED WAY (chemin councit); a space of ground on the edge of the duch, ranging round the works of a forthfication. Its glacis descends, by an easy slope, towards the field. It alfords a safe communication round all the works, facilitates sallies and retreats, and the reception of auxiliaries, compels the enemy to begin his operations at a distance, checks his approach and the erection of breach batteries, and its parapet protects the fortifications in its rear.

COVERTURE. (See Husband and Wife.)

Ψ,

Cowes; a seaport on the north coast of the Isle of Wight, situated on the river Meden, which divides it into East and West Cowes; 12 miles W. S. W. Portsmouth. West Cowes fort is situated in lon. 1° 19' W., lat. 50° 46' N. The harbor is as safe as any in the British channel, and by far the most convenient for vessels bound to Holland and the east countries, and is much frequented by ships to repair damages sustained at sea, and to water, until the weather permits them to proceed on their respective voyages. This place is much resorted to in summer, as a bathing place. East Cowes is a humlet opposite to West Cowes.

Cowley, Abraham, a distinguished English poet, was born at London in 1618. His father, a grocer, died before his birth, but his mother obtained him admission into Westminster school, as king's scholar. He complained of his own defective memory, in the acquirement of the rules of grammar, but nevertheless became a correct classical scholar, and so early ambibed a taste for poetry, that, in his 16th or 17th year, while yet at school, he pubhshed a collection of verses, which he entitled Poetical Blossoms. These pavenile productions, which are more moral and sententious than imaginative, attracted considerable attention towards the author, who, in 1636, was elected a scholar of Trinity college, Cambridge, where he soon obtained great literary distinction, and published a pastoral comedy, entitled Love's Riddle, and another in Laun, called Naufragium Joculare, which was acted before the university by the members of Trunty college. He continued to reside at Cambriage until 1643, when he was ejected by the puritanical visitors; on which he removed to St. John's college, Oxford, where, he published a satirical poem, entitled the Puritan and the Papist. engaged actively in the royal cause, and was honored with the friendship of lord Falkland. When the queen was obliged to quit England, Cowey accompanied her. He was absent from his native country nearly 10 years, during which time he undertook various journeys for the royal family; and it was principally through him that the correspondence was maintained between the king and queen. In 1647 appeared his collection of amatory poems, cutfied the Mistress. This was followed, in 1650, by a comedy, called the Guardian, afterwards altered into the Cutter of Coleman Street. In 1656, being no longer employed abroad, lie returned to England, where, it is presumed, he still

remained a medium of confidential, com- ic Odes exhibit a most unbridled license published an edition of his poems, containing most of the works which appear in the final collection. He was, about this time, committed to custody by the ruling powers, but was released on the bail for him to the amount of £1000. For the purpose, probably, of appearing in an ostensible character, he assumed the profession of physic, and had sufficient interest to procure a mandamus from Oxford, m 1657. He again visited France, and resumed his functions of agent in the royal cause on the death of Croniwell. On the restoration, he returned with the other royalists. By the interest of the duke of Buckingham and the earl of St. Alban's, he obtained the lease of a farm at Chertsey, held under the gucen, by which his income was rendered about £300 per annum. It however appears, that neither the mind flor body of Cowley was fit-ted for his new mode of life. A severe cold and fever, caught from wandering among the damp fields, terminated his life July, 1667, in the 49th year of his age. The private character of Cowley cuttled him to general respect; and Charles II. (no very conclusive testimony, cortainly) observed, that he had not left a "better man behind him in England." appears, on higher authority, however, that the loyalty of Cowley was free from the servitty and gross adulation of the counters of the day, and that he possessed a free, independent spirit; was modest, sober and sincere; of gentle affections and moderate wishes. As a poet, he probably stands at the head of the metaphysical class, so ably discussed medoctor Johnson's life of him. He is, by turns, easy, gay, splendid, witty, and never trite and vulgar, although often fantastic, strained, and extravagant. The chief ment of Cowley consists in a find of sport of the imagination in pursue of a thought through all its variations and obliquities, and in searching throughout the material world for objects of similated with intellectual ideas, connected by the most fanciful relations. The Anacreomics of Cowley are among his most agreeable pieces, and few have paraphrased the Teian bard more felicitously. His own original ballad, the List of Mistresses, is deemed still more. sprightly and pleasant. His love verses, enteled the Mistress, abound with wit, but are diterly destitute of feeling, being at once ingenious and frigid. His Pındar-

munication between the king and the of thought, metre and expression, but" royal party. Soon after his arrival, he contain many very striking combinations and images. His Davideis, which is in-. complete, although conveying no strong proof of epic talent, contains some pleasing passages. Of his occasional pieces, his Hymn to Light is decidedly the most relebrated doctor Scarborough becoming elevated and poetical. As an essayist in prose, Cowley is natural, easy and equable, abounding with thought, but without any of the affectation or straining which disfigures his poetry. Nor is his comedy, the Cutter of Coleman Street, without humor, although of a temporary nature. As a writer of Latin verse, he is highly commended by doctor Johnson. His principal performance in that language, consists of six books on plants, which show remarkable facility in the accommodation of verse to an untoward subject. His imitations of the satires and moral epistles of Horace are also much admired by Warton. Whatever place Cowley may retain m general estimation as a poet, he must always stand high as a wit: few authors afford so many new thoughts, and those so entirely his own.

Cowern, William, a distinguished modem English poet, was born at Berkhamstead, Herts, Nov. 26, 1731. His father, the rector of the parish, was the reverend John Cowper, D. D., son of Spencer Cowper, one of the justices of the common pleas, a younger brother of the lord chancellor Cowper. He received his early education at a school in his native county, whence he was removed to that of Westminster. Here he acquired a competent portion of classical knowledge; but, from the delicacy of his temperament, and the turned shyness of his disposition, he seems to have endured a species of martyrdom fiom the rudeness and tyranny of his more robust companions, and to have received, indebbly, the impressions that subsequently produced his Tirocimum, in which poem his disbke to the astein of public education in England is very strongly stated. On leaving Westminster, he was articled, for three years, to an emment attorney, during which time he appears to have paid very little attention to his profession; nor did he alter on this point after his entry at the Temple, in order to qualify himself for the honorable and lucrative place of clerk to the house of lords, which post his family interest had secured for him. While he resided in the Temple, he appears to have been rather gay and social in his intercourse, numbering among his companions Lloyd. Churchill, Thorir-

51 \*

606

ton and Colman, all of whom had been his companions at Westminster school, and the two latter of whom he assisted with some papers in the Connoisseur. His natural disposition, however, remained timid and diffident, and his spirits so constitutionally infirm, that, when the time arrived for his assuming the post to which the had been destined, he was thrown into such unaccountable terror at the idea of making his appearance before the assembled peerage, that he was not only obliged to resign the appointment, but was precipitated, by his agitation of spirits, into a state of great mental disorder. At this period, he was led into a deep consideration of his religious state; and, having imbibed the doctrine of election and reprobation in its most appalling rigor, he was led to a very dismal state of apprehension. We are told, "that the terror of eternal judgment overpowered and actually disordered his faculties; and he remained seven months in a continual expectation of being instantly plunged into eternal misery." In this shocking condition, confinement became \*ecessary, and he was placed in a receptacle for lunatics, kept by the amiable and well-known doctor Cotton of St. Alban's. At length, his mind recovered a · degree of seremty, and he retired to Huntingdon, where he formed an acquaintance with the family of the reverend Mr. Unwin, which repend into the strictest minnacy... In 1773, he was again assailed by refigious despondency, and endured a partial alienation of mind for some years, during which affliction he was highly indebted to the affectionate care of Mrs. Unwin. 1778, he agam recovered; in 1780, he was persuaded to translate some of the spiritual sories of the celebrated madaine In the same and the following year, he was also induced to prepare a volume of poems for the press, which was printed in 1782. This volume did not attract any great degree of public attention. The principal topics re, Error, Truth, Expos-. tulation, Hope, Charity, Retirement and Conversation; all of which are treated with originality, but, at the same time, with a portion of religious austerity, which, without some very striking recommendation, was not, at that time, of a nature to acquire popularity. They are in rhymed heroics; the style being rather strong than poetical, although never flat or insipid. A short time before the publication of this , volume, Mr. Cowper became acquainted with lady Austen, widow of sir Robert . Austen, who subsequently resided, for

Olney. To the influence of this lady, the world is indebted for the exquisitely un-morous ballad of John Gilpin, and the author's master-piece, the Task. The latter admirable poem chiefly occupied his 2d volume, which was published in 1785; • and rapidly secured universal admiration. The Task unites minute accuracy with great elegance and picturesque beauty; and, after Thomson, Cowper is probably the poet who has added most to the stock of natural imagery. The moral reflections in this poem are also exceedingly impressive, and its delineation of character abounds in genuine nature. His religious system too, although discoverable, is less gloomily a bridged in this than in his other and a subject of the contained him and a subject of the cont servations, whatever may be thought of its decision against public education. About the year 1784, he began his version of Homer, which, after many impediments, appeared in July, 1791. This work possesses much exactness, as to sense, and is certainly a more accurate representation of Homer than the version of Pope; Just English blank verse cannot sufficiently sustain the less poetical parts of Homer, and the general effect is bald and prosaic. Disappointed at the reception of this laborious work, he meditated a revision of it. as also the superintendence of an edition of Milton, auff a new didactic poem, to be entitled the Four Ages; but, although he occasionally write a few verses, and revised his Odyssey, amidst his glimmerings of reason, those and all other undertakings finally gave way to a relapse of his mala-His dworder extended, with little intermission, to the close of life; which, melancholy to relate, ended in a state of absolute despair. In 1794, a pension of £300 per amum was granted him by the crown. In the beginning of 1800, this gifted, but afflicted may of genius, exhibited symptoms of drops), which carried him off on the 25th of April following. Since his death, Cowper has, by the care and industry of his friend and biographer, Hayley, become known to the world, as one of the most easy and elegant letterwriters on record.

acquire popularity. They are in rhymed heroics; the style being rather strong than poetical, although never flat or insipid, a kind of small muscles, belonging to the A short time before the publication of this volume, Mr. Cowper became acquainted with lady Austen, who subsequently resided, for the largest are an inch and a half in size, and indented on both sides of the opening. They are collected twice a

They are used throughout the East Indies, especially in Bengal and in the African . trade, instead of small coins. The de-. mand is so great, that, notwithstanding the insignificant price (in 1780, a pound of them might be bought for three cents), about \$150,000 worth are sent every year

to Bengal.

Coxe, William, a historian and traveller, born in London, 1747, was educated at Eton and Cambridge, and successively accompanied several young men of the first English families, on their travels in Europe, in the capacity of tutor. Among these were the carl of Pembroke, the late Mr. Whithread (the famous parliamentary orator), and the marquis of Cornwallis. He published an account of his travels through Switzerland (1779), and through Poland, Russia, Sweden and Domnark (1784-92), which are highly esteemed, and have been translated into almost all the languages of Europe. As a historian, he brought himself into notice by his Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole, in 1798, which were followed by those of Horayo Lord Walpole, in 1802. He then published his History of the House of Austria (1807), which has been translated into German; next, his Memoirs of the Kings of Spain of the House of Bourbon, from 1700 to 1788 (1813, 3 vols., 4to.). Marlborough's Lafe and Original Papers (1818 et seq., 3 vols. 4to.) is a valuable work. Mr. Cove died in 1828.

COXIE, or COXCIN, Michael, a painter and engraver, born at Mechlin, 1497, a pupil of Bernard van Orley, travelled to Rome, where he remained several years, attracted by the works of Raphael, with whom he was probably personally acquainted. Here he executed several paintings in fresco, and many other pieces. He also painted the Estory of Cupid and Psyche, in the styl of Raphael, which was engraved on 32 copperplates. In the imperial gallery of Vienna, we find a Madonna with the infant Jesus, by him. His works are rare, even in the Netherlands. He died in 1592.

COFFELS, THE: 1. Noel, the father, born, it is uncertain whether at Paris or in Normandy, in 1628 or in 1629, died in 1707, at Paris. After he had embellished, by the royal command, the old Louvre with his paintings (from the cartoons of Lebrum, and had, in like manner, adorned the Tuileries, he was appointed a director of the French academy in Rome.

year in the bay of Bengal, on the Malabar His four pictures for the council hall at rough, and, in still greater quantity, in the Versailles—Solon, Traisin, Severus and naghborhood of the Maldive islands. Prolemy Philadelphus—excited the admi-Ptolemy Philadelphus excited the admiration of connoisseurs. His chief works are, the Martyrdom of St. James (in the church of Notre Dame), Cain murdering his Brother (in the academy), the Trinity and the Conception of the Holy Virgin (in the Hôtel des Invalides). Coypel had a rich imagination, drew correctly, understood expression, and was an agreeable colorist.—2. His son, Anthony, born at Paris, in 1661, where he died in 1721, possessed spirit and invention. At the age of 14, he studied the works of the Venetian colorists, and, though his studies were interrupted by his speedy return to France, the works that he executed obtained the greatest applause, which rendered him probably more careless than he would otherwise have been. The richness of his imagination and the greatness of his composition caused his imperfect drawing to he overlooked, and his dazzling coloring excused his want of harmony. His famb laid the foundation for the manner of the French school. 3. Much more pure and correct, but comparatively neglected by the public of his time, was his younger brother, Noel Nicholas Coypel, usually called Coypel the uncle, born at Paris, in 1692, where he died in 1735. Far from desiring to dazzle by a false glitter, he anned only at truth and nature. general popularity, he was satisfied with the praise of a small circle of connoisseurs of good taste. He finally received a place in the academy.—4. Charles Anthony, the son of Anthony, born at Paris, in 1694, where he died in 1752, followed the example of his father, and accommodated hmiself to the taste of his time with great success. The applause which he received did him much injury. He was entirely a mannerist. His coloring was dazzling, but inharmonious. His father was the author of a poetical epistle on painting, addressed to him, written with much elegance.

Coysevox, Antoine, a sculptor, born at Lyons, in 1640, went to Alsace, in his 27th year, to adorn the beautiful palace of the cardinal Fürstenberg at Saverne. On his return to France, he became a member of the academy of the arts of painting and sculpture, and made several busts of Louis XIV, and other works for the royal His figures are full of grace, natural and noble. He was called the Vandyke of sculpture, on account of the beauty and animation of his portraits, . The statue of cardinal Mazarin, in the museum at Paris, is a masterpiece of art.

Pesides this, his most distinguished works are the statue of Louis XIV, on horseback, for the estates of Bretagne; the sepulchre of Colbert; the statues representing the Dordogne, Garonne and Marne; the group of Castor and Pollux; the sitting Venus; the Nymph of the Shell; the Hamadryad; the sportive Faun with the Flute; Pegasus and Mercury. Coysevox died at Paris, in 1720, in the 80th year of his age.

CRAB (cancer, Lin.). This name, which of considerable size. appears to be derived from the Greek mapa 3.... through the Latin carabus, used by Pliny to designate certain crustaccous species, is now applied to a considerable group of invertebral animals, whose bodare covered by an external skeleton, or calcarcous crust, having 10 articulated lumbs, adapted for swimming or walking, and breathing by branchia, or gills. The head and corselet are united, the latter being broader than it is long. The tail is being broader than it is long. short in proportion, and concealed by-beong turned forward beneath the body. This genus is distinguished from all oth, ers of the same family by the semicircular shape of the corselet, the pointed or booked extremities of the last joint of the hmbs, the narrowness of the superior shell from before backwards, the posterior direction of the hunder tarsi, and the absence of spines or ridges from the forceps, or biting claws. They belong to the fourth section of ten-legged, short-tailed crustacea (decapoda brachyura) of the latest systems, and are of numerous species, exceedingly various in size, color, and modes of hving. A slight survey of the structure of these animals might lead to the opinion that their senses were limhed or imperfect; but proper observation shows the contrary to be time. The sense of sight, in most of the species, is pecuearly acute, and enables them to distinguish the approach of objects from a very considerable distance. Their power of smelling is also great, though we have not yet discovered the organ by which this sense operates. It has been interied that the antennæ serve this purpose. Until more positive knowledge is acquired on the subject, no evil can arise from this opinion as to the seat of the sense of smell. The entrance to the organ of hearing is at the base of the peduncle sustaining the antenna, and consists of a small, hard, triangular prominence, covered by a membrane, within which is a cavity containing the expanded auditory nerve. Of all the senses, that of touch, except so far as it may be possessed by the antenna, appears to be the least perfect, since the whole •

body and limbs are incrusted with a hard, compact shell. Of the sense of taste, we can say nothing, but that, as the animals possess a remarkably complex and elaborate apparatus for mastication, there is no reason for believing them devoid of this sense. The mouth is furnished with at least eight pieces or pairs of jaws, which pass the food through an extremely short gullet into a membranous stomach This stomach is rendered curious by having within certain cartilaginous appendages, to which strong grinding teeth are attached. These, m crabs, are five in number, and placed at the pyloric extremity, or outlet of the stomach; so that the aliment, after being subjected to the action of the jaws, is again -more perfectly chewed by the stomachteeth, before entering the digestive tube, where it is exposed to the action of the biliary fluid of the liver. The latter organ is of great size in these creatures, and is all that soft, rich, yellow substance, found immediately beneath the superior shell. usually called the fat of the crab, and justly esteemed a deheious phorsel. A little posterior to the stomach (commonly called sandbag), the heart is situated—a somewhat globular, whitish body, which propels a colorless lymph to the gills (called dead man's flesh or fingers) and next of the body, whence it is brought back to the ,heart by a hollow vem (rena cara), of considerable size. The process of sloughing, moulting, or throwing off the entire calcureous covering, which constitutes their only skeleton, is common to all the crustacca, and is very worthy of attention. As it is obvious that the hard shell, when once perfected, cannot change with the growth of the animal, it becomes neces-ary that it should be shed entirely; and this shedding takes place at regular perods, at which the .rerease of size occurs. No one can behold the huge claws or forceps of various species, and the small-ness of the joints be ween them and the body, without feeling some surprise that the creature should be able to extricate them from the old shell, though this is readily accomplished. The aquatic crabs, when the season of shedding arrives, generally seek the sandy shores of the creeks and rivers, and, having selected a situation. they remain at rest, and the change begins. The body of the crab seems to swell, the large upper shell is gradually detached at the edge, or where it joins the thorax or corselet, and the membrane gradually gives way, and rises up from behind, somewhat like the lid of a chest.

The crab next begins to withdraw the to turn them from their course. limbs from their cases, and the large muscles of the claws undergo a softening, which allows of their being drawn through the smaller joints. This movement is slowly effected, and, at the time it is accomplished, the parts about the mouth, the antenna and eyes are withdrawn from their old cases, and the animal escapes, retaining his original figure, but soft, helpless, and incapable of exertion or resistance. By a gentle and not very obvious motion, we next observe the sand displaced below the body, and the crab begins to be covered with it, until, at length, he is sufficiently covered for safety, though still in sight. This is generally in shallow water, where the sun shines freely upon the bottom; and, in the course of 12 hours. the external membrane begins to harden, to as to crackle like paper when presed upon, and the process of hardening goes on so rapidly, that, by the end of the next 48 hours, the crab regains something of ins former solidity and ability to protect himself by flight or resistance. Myriads of these anamals are caught on the shores of the rivers and creeks of the Chesa-peake bay, when in their soft state, and sold to great advantage. The epicure who has never tasted soft crabs should hasten to Baltimore, Annapolis or Easton, m Maryland, in July and August, to make hmself acquainted with one of the highest luxuries of the table, which fairly disputes the palm with canvass-back ducks, also to be obtained in perfection in Baltimore during the winter. The habits of crabs are very various: some are exclusively aquatic, and remain on the sands or locks, at great depths in the sea; others inhabit excavations formed in the soft coral reefs or bars on certain sousts; some spend their days altogether on shore, living in burrows or dens, formed in a moist or boggy soil; others resort to the rocky flats or beaches, to bask in the sun, where only an occasional wave dishes over them, and seek refuge in the sea when alarmed; while some species are completely terrestrial, inhabiting holes upon the highest hills and mountains of the West Indies. Of these land-crabs, the most remarkable is the species formerly so abundant in the highlands of Jamaica (cancer ruricola), and still common in less densely peopled or eninhabited islands. When the season for spawning arrives, vast armies of them set out from the hills, marching in a direct hne towards the sea-shore, for the purpose of depositing their eggs in the sand. On this grand expedition, nothing is allowed

unyielding perseverance, they surmount every obstacle which may intervene, whether a house, rock, or other body, not avoiding the labor of climbing by going round, but ascending and passing over it in a straight line. Having reached the destined limit of their journey, they deposit their eggs in the sand, and recommence their toilsome march towards their upland retreats. They set out after nightfall, and steadily advance, until the approach of day-light warns them to seek concealment in the inequalities of the ground, or among any kind of rubbish, where they lie ensconced until the stars. again invite them to pursue their undeviating course. On their seaward journey, they are in full vigor and fine condition; and this is the time when they are caught in great numbers for the table. Their flesh, which is of the purest whiteness, is highly esteemed, but, like that of all crustaccous animals, is rather difficult of digestion. Returning from the coast, they are, exhausted, poor, and no longer fit for use. They then retire to their burrows, and slough, or shed their shells, after which operation, and while in their soft state, they are again sought by epicures. Seeing they are so much valued as an article of food, it is not surprising that their-numbers should be exceedingly diminished, or quite extinguished, in populous islands, where multitudes are annually consumed, before they have deposited their eggs for the continuance of the species. Besides this cause of diminution, they are destroyed, in great numbers, by other animals, and numbers of them perish from exhaustion and many on their homeward prog-When the eggs are hatched, the young, in like manner, seek the hills, and pursue the course of life peculiar to their race. Crabs generally subsist upon ani-, mal matter, especially in a state of decomposition, though some of them are very fond of certain vegetable substances. This is especially the case with the swift-running or racer crabs, which live in burrows made in a soft or watery soil, in the vicin-ity of sugar-cane fields. From their num-bers and activity, they become a great nuisance, destroying large quantities of cane, by cutting it off and sucking the juice. They sometimes increase to such a degree, that, in conjunction with the rats and other destroyers of the cane, they . blight the hopes of the planter, and completely spoil his crop. Their excavations in the soil are so deep and extensive, and it is so very difficult to catch or de-

stroy them in any way, that they may be 'of my prize, one vigilant imp at distance regarded as seriously subtracting from the value of estates situated near the sea, or where they are abundant. No one, who has not made the experiment, could readily believe the great distance at which these marauders descry an approaching pursuer, nor the extraordinary celerity with which they escape. Few men can , run with sufficient swiftness to overtake them; and even when, from any accident, the pursuer is led to hope that he has cut. off the retreat of his victim, the wonderful facility they have in running, or rather darting in any direction, or with any part of their bodies foremost, almost uniformly enables them to clude capture, and recommence their flight. It is seldom, however, that they leave the mouths of their dens, or go to a distance from them, in the day-time; and their vigilance is esuch, that they regain them in a moment, and disappear securely, as soon as a man or dog comes near enough to be seen. · The writer has known a planter, whose crop was ruined one season by bad weather, rats, and crabs combined, vent his spleen by shooting the crabs, which were not otherwise to be approached so as to be killed. This, as might be supposed, was a very meffectual revenge, since their shells are sufficiently hard to cause most of the shot to glance harmlessly off. Perhaps poisoning, by means of the powder of the nux vomica, or St. Ignatius's bean, · would prove a more effectual method. A mixture of this powder with sugar or molasses and crumbs of bread might be tried with a considerable prospect of success. The species which daily bask in the sun, on the rocky shores of the West India. slands, are quite as vigilant, and very little , inferior in swiftness to those above-mentioned. Some of them are very large splendidly colored, and well suited to excite the wishes of a naturalist to add them to his collection. Many an hour of anxious watching, and many a race of breathless eagerness, have they caused the writer in vain. Sometimes when, with great caution, I had approached, and placed. myself between the crab and the sea, haping to drive him inland and secure him, just at the instant success seemed to be certain, the vigilant animal would dart sidewise, backwards, or in a direction entirely opposite to that he might be expected to take; and scamper securely to. his ocean hiding-place. At other times, while stealing upon one which was pre- suaded him to study theology, and, by lavented from observing my approach by a borious application, without having visited

has taken alarm, and, by dashing across the spot where the unsuspecting individ-ual rested, set all in the vicinity to flight, and changed my anticipated triumph to mortification.-Inquirers who wish to ob-. tain the most ample knowledge of the construction, functions and classification of crustaceous animals, we refer to Desmarest's excellent work, entitled Considérations générales sur les Crustacés (8vo., Paris, 1825). Such as wish to be satisfactofily acquainted with the habits of these curious beings, would find much gratification from a visit, during the fine season, to some of the places of resort upon our Atlantic coast, where they will find an' abundant field thrown open to their examination. Perhaps cape May is one of the best situations for this purpose, on account of the facility of visiting it, and the excellence of its sea beach.

CRAB, in ship-building; a sort of wood-en pillar, whose lower end, being let down through a ship's decks, rests upon a socket, like the capstern. It is employed to wind in the cable, or to raise any weighty mutter. It differs from the capstern by not being furnished with a drum-head, and by having the bars going entirely through it.,

CRAB-APPLE. (See Apple.)
CRABBE, George, one of the most popular of the modern British poets, was born Dec. 21, 1754, at Akborough, in Suffolk. He was the son of an officer of the customs, and was intended for a surgeon. The poetical disposition of the boy showed itself carly, being awakened by the opposite spirit of the father, who used to cut all the verses out of the journals which he read, considering them as a uscless meumbrance. The pieces of paper containing them served the children for playthings. Thus the httle Coorge acquired the habit of reading verst, learned many of the pieces, by hearl, and, after a while, attempted to supply the gaps often made in the pieces by the process of excision. By and by, he wrote for the journals, and. in 1778, gained a prize for a poem on hope, which induced him to give up the study of surgery, and go to London, where he devoted himself entirely to belles-lettres Here Edmund Burke became his paternal friend and adviser. The first poems which he published after his change of residence. including the Village (1782), received great Doctor Johnson encarraged applause. the young poet to persevere. Burke perprojecting piece of rock, and almost sure a university, he gained an academic de

arce. The duke of Rutland conferred on the capital of Poland, and though, after \$ hum a hving in his gift, to which another was afterwards added. Crabbe now married, and became the father of a numerous fumily. At a later period, he received a lucrative benefice, in the county of Suffolk; and, in 1813, he was made rector of Trowbridge. The study of theology, for a long time, withdrew Mr. Crabbe almost entirely from poetic labors. As. late as 1807, after an interruption of almost 20 years, he gave some new poems to the public, among which the Borough deserves particular mention. His latest work is the Tales of the Hall, in which two brothers who have met after a long separation, describe many scener and events which they have witnessed. His smaller tales, in verse, deserve also to be mentioned. His works have gone through many editions, and, of late years, he has himself made a collection of them. His poetry has been justly compared to the painting of Teniers and Ostade, being distinguished for truth, accuracy and life. Its charm lies in the masterly treatment of subjects which, in themselves, have . little of a poetical character. His muse loves to visit the huts of poverty and misery, and describes the scenes which they exhibit with heart-rending truth. His descriptions of nature are hving, greamstantial and true. Every thing about him is characteristic, clear and simple. He has been called the anatomist of the human soul.

CRABETH, Dierk and Wouter, brothers; painters on glass; said, by some, to be Germans: by others, to be Dutchmen. They hard at the end of the 15th and the beginning of the 16th centuries, at Gouda, where they executed 17 paintings on glass, in St. John's charch, which are still admired. Wouter except d in exactness, Dierk in power. The art of painting on glass, according to some accounts, ceased with them. It is related that the jealousy of the two brothers prevented them from communicating to each other the secret of their particular style, and that each, on receiving a visit from the other, carefully concealed such of his works as were not completed, lest the observation of the gradual improvement of the painting might enable his brother to acquire the peculiar advantages of his style.

CRACOW; a republic and city in Poland, in West Galicia, situated on an extensive plain, at the confluence of the rivers Rudawa and Vistula, where many importanf commercial roads centre; lon. 19° 57' 9" E.; lat. 50° 3' 52" N. It was formerly

wards, Sigismund III (who reigned from 1587 to 1632) fixed the royal residence at Warsaw, still it remained, till 1764, the place of coronation. It contains about 25,000 inhabitants, of whom many are Germans, and a great number Jews. It consists of Cracow proper, or the old city, surrounded with fortifications, walls and ditches, and the suburbs of Stradom and Clepar on the left, and Casimir on the right, bank of the river Vistula. traveller, on seeing the number of rich ' old churches and towers, the lofty castle, and the mass of houses, spread out before him on the boundless plain, would suppose that he was approaching a splendid city; but, on entering, he finds a labyrinth of crooked and dirty streets, bearing the remains of former splendor. Cracow is the see of a bishop, who formerly bore the title of duke of Severia. The church of the castle (a Gothic building well worth seeing), the richest church in Gahcia, contains the monuments of many Polish, kings, the tombs of the famous Sobieski, of Jos. Peniatowski, of Koserusko and Dombrowski. Of the other 72 churches, some are remarkable for their antiquity. In the church of St. Anna stands the marble monument of Copernicus. On one of the three hills near Cracow stands the monument of Kosciusko, 120 feet high. The city is supposed to have been founded by a prince named Cracus, about A. D. 700. It adopted the Magdeburg law in 1257. From this time, it has been the seat of a flourishing commerce, and has, possessed a good university, with an observatory. The university, was rea modelled in 1817. On the division of -Poland, in 1795, Cracow fell to Austria, which had already taken possession of the suburb of Casamir. In 1809, it was, to gether with all West Galicia, made a part of the duchy of Warsaw. By an act of .. the congress of Vienna (1815), Cracow, with a territory of 487 square rfiles and 108,000 inhabitants (of whom 7300 are Jews, and 1500 Lutheraus), was declared 'a republic, to remain perpetually neutral, and to be governed according to the constitution of May 3, 1815. The city has a militia for its defence. The taxes are considerably reduced, a part of the debts paid, and useful buildings have been erected. The three powers, under whose protection Cracow is (Austria, Russia and Prussia), on the 5th of Oct., 1826, estab lished a new course of study for the umversity and other institutions for instruc-tion. The constitution, signed by Met-

ternich, Rasumoffsky, and Hardenberg, for Austria, Russia and Prussia, establishes a house of representatives, and a and first professor of theology; and ten senate with a president, a court of appeal, &c. The legislative body consists of rep resentatives chosen by the corporations, together with three deputies of the senate, three prelates of the chapter, three doctors of the university, and six judges! The executive power is in the hands of a senate, consisting of twelve senators, eighte of whom are for life, and four for a limited period. The president and eight of the members are chosen by the national assembly; the other four by the chapter and the university. Most of the inhabit-ants are Catholics, but all sects are protected. No one is qualified for being a senator or representative without having ' studied in one of the universities of Po-

CRADIE, in shipbuilding; a frame placed under the bottom of a ship, in order to conduct her, smoothly and steadily, into , the water, when she is launched; at which time it supports her weight whilst she slides down the descent or sloping passage called the ways, which, to facilitate her passage, are daubed with soap and tal-

CRAFT, in sea language, signifies all rhanner of nets, lines, hooks, &c., used in fishing. Hence little vessels, as ketches, hovs, smacks, &c., of the kind commonly used in the fishing trade, are called small

Cramer, John Andrew, born Jan., 1723, at Johstadt, near Annaberg, in the Saxon Erzgebirge, where his father was a poor clergyman, studied theology at Leipsic, in 1742, where he supported hunself by his literary labors and private instruction. In connexion with Ebert, Joh. Elias Schlegel, Gærtner, Geller, Klopstock, Rabener and other young men, whose labors had a favorable influence on the cultivation of the German taste, he was actively en-.gaged if editing the Bremischen Beiträge, and likewise the Sammlung vermischter Schriften von den Verfassern der bremischen Beitrage. In 1754, by the influence of Klopstock, he was appointed court preacher and consistorial counsellor of king Frederic V at Copenhagen, and, in 1765, professor of theology in the same place. Here he was much respected and beloved. and received the surname der Byegode The revolution, which (the very good). caused the downfall of count Struensee and the queen Caroline Matilda, occasioned also the disgrace of Cramer, and induced him, in 1771, to accept of an

invitation to Lübeck. In 1774, however, he was invited to Kiel as pro-changellor years after, was appointed chancellor and curator of the university. He died in He died in 1788, with the reputation of an accomplished scholar, a poet, a fertile author, one of the first pulpit orators, and a man of a noble character and an active zead for the public good. Besides many historical and theological works, he wrote a poetical translation of the psalms, and three volumes of poems, of which the odes and hymns are the best. .

His son, Charles Frederic Cramer (born in 1752, died in 1807), was likewise an author, and lived long in Paris, whither he was drawn by the interest which he took in the French revolution. His journal, which he kept with great care, con tains much information, as his house was the point of union of many distinguished men, and he was concerned in important

transactions.

CRAMP (kramp, Dutch), in architecture and sculpture; pieces of iron, bronze, or other metal, bent at each cut, by which stones in buildings, and limbs, &c., of statues, are held together. The ancient Romans made great use of cramps in their buildings, and, the cupidity of modern barbarians, like pope Barbermi, has de stroyed many a fine work for the sake of the bronze used infits construction. Pantheon, with its fine portico, by Agrippa, and the Cohseum, have suffered most from these wanton aggressions, and the baldachin of St. Peter's, and some eighty pieces of brass ordnance, are nearly all that we have in exchange for some of the finest works, of which the world could boast.

CRANBERRY; ~ small red fruit, produced by a slea, ver, wiry plant (vaccinium oxycocros), grolying in peaty loogs and marshy grounds in Russia, Sweden, the north of England and Germany, and in North America. The leaves are small, somewhat oval, and rolled back at the edges, and the stein is thread-shaped and trailing. The blossoms are small but trailing. The blossoms are small, but beautiful, each consisting of four distinct petals, rolled back to the base, and of a deep flesh color. The American cranberry (V. macrocarpon), growing in bogs principally, on sandy soils, and on high lands, frequent from Canada to Virginia, is a larger and more upright plent man the last, with less convex, more oblong, The berries are much larger leaves. larger, of a brighter red, and collected in great abundance for making tarts, jelly,

but are not considered there equal to the Russian cranberries. These fruits are collected, in America, by means of a rake; in Germany, by wooden combs. In England, they are picked by hand, as they grow there but scantily. They are preserved with sugar, much of which is required to correct the natural-tartness of the berries. In England, they are preserved dry in bottles, corked so closely as to exclude the external air : some persons, however, fill up the bottles with spring water. They keep very long in fresh and pure water. At sea, they are an agreeable addition to the few articles of diet which can be had. In the Pomarium Britannicum, by Phillips (London, 1827), it is stated, that, in 1826, cranberries arrived in England from New Holland, which were much superior in flavor to those of Europe and America.

Crane (grus, Pal., &c.); a genus of birds belonging to the order gralla, L.; and, by the great Swedish naturalist, comprised in his extensive genus ardea, though properly ranked as a distinct genus by all subsequent naturalists. The distinctive characters of this genus are as follows: The bill is but little cleft, is compressed, attenuated towards the point, and rather obtuse at its extremity; the mandibles are subequal, with vertical margins, the upper being convex, with a wide furrow on each side at the base, which becomes obliterated before reaching the anddle of the bill, The postrils are situated in these furrows, and are medialconcave, elliptical, pervious, and closed posteriorly by a membrane. The tongue is fleshy, broad and acute 7 The ophthalme region and lora are Fathered, though the head is general bald, rough, and sometimes crested. The body is cylinducal, having long and stout feet. The naked space above the tarsus is extensive, led to their being held in a sort of veneand the latter is more than twice as long as the middle toe. The toes are of moderate length, covered with scutelle, or small plates, and submargmed; a rudimental membrane connects the outer one shorter than a joint of the middle one, and is articulated with the tarsus, elevated from the ground; the nails are tile-shaped, falculate, and obtuse; the middle one has its cutting edge entire; the huld nail is the leagest; the wings are moderate, with a continued fine weather; they fly low and the first and fifth primaries subequal; the tail is short, and consists of twelve feathers. These birds are generally of considerable size, and remarkable for their long necks

&c. They are also exported to Europe, and stilt-like legs, which eminently fit them for living in marshes and situations subject to inundations, where they usually seek their food. This is principally of vegetable matter, consisting of the seeds of various plants, or grains plundered from grounds recently ploughed and sown. They also devour insects, worms, frogs, lizards, reptiles, small fish, and the spawn of various aquatic animals. They build their nests among bushes, or upon tussucks in the marshes, constructing them ' of rushes, reeds, &c., surmounted by. some soft material, so high that they may cover the eggs in a standing position. They lay but two eggs, for whose incubation the male and female alternately take their place on the nest. During the time that one is thus engaged, the other acts as a vigilant sentinel; and, when the young are hatched, both parents unite in protecting them. The cranes annually inigrate to distant regions, and perform voyages astonishing for their great length and hazardous character. They are remarkable for making numerous circles and evolutions in the air, when setting out on their journeys, and generally form an isosceles triangle, led by one of the strongest of their maniber, whose trumpetlike voice is heard as if directing their advance, when the flock is far above the clouds, and entirely out of sight. To this call-note of the leader the flock frequently respond by a united clangor, which, heard at such a distance, does not produce an unpleasing effect. From the sagacity with which these birds vary their flight, '. according to the states of the atmosphere, they have, from the earliest ages, been regarded as indicators of events; and their manceuvres were attentively watched by the augurs and aruspices—a circumstance which, together with their general harmlessness and apparent gravity of demeanor, ration, even by some civilized nations. When obliged to take wing from the ground, cranes use with considerable difficulty, striking quickly with their wings, and trailing their feet along and near the at base; the inner is free; the hand toe is ground, until they have gained a sufficient elevation to commence wheeling in circles, which grow wider and wider, until they have soared to the highest regions of the air. When their flight is high and silent, it is regarded as an indication of are noisy in cloudy, wet or stormy weather: Against approaching storms, the cranes, like various other birds of lofty flight, readily guard, by ascending above the

VOL. III.

level of the clouds, and the atmospheric currents which bear them; and this indication of an approaching gust is not lost sight of by Virgil:—

"——Nunquam imprudentibus imber Obfuit . aut filum surgentem vallibus imis Aeriæ fugere grues ; aut bueula," &c. Georg! I., 373—5.

When a flock of cranes is engaged in feeding, or while it is at rest, when the birds sleep standing on one foot, with the head under the wing, one of the number acts as sentinel, and keeps a vigilant watch, alarming the whole if any enemy approach or the slightest danger threaten. Two species of this genus are known to inhabit the U. States—the whooping crane (G. Americana) and the brown or sandhill crane (G. Canadensis, Bonap.) The tirst named derive their trivial appellation from their loud, clear, piercing cry, which may be heard at the distance of two miles. If wounded, they attack the sportsman or his dog with great spirit, and are said to have occasionally driven their long, pointed bill through the hand of a man. Wilson states that, during winter, they are frequently seen in the low grounds and rice plantations of the Southern States, seeking for grain and insects. He met with a number of them, on the 10th of February, near Waccamau river, in South Carolina, and saw another flock near Louisville, Ky., about the 20th of March. They are very shy and vigilant, and, consequently, shot with difficulty. sometimes rise spirally in the air to a vast height, their mingled screams resembling the full cry of a pack of hounds, even when they are almost out of sight. They are distinguished from other cranes by the comparative baldness of their heads, and by the broad flag of plumage project ing over the tail. Their general color is The brown or sandhill crane pure white. is of an ash color, generally, with shades or . clouds of pale-brown and sky-blue: brown prevails upon the shoulders and back. It is a very stately bird, being above six feet long, from the toes to the point of the beak, when extended, and its wings. measure eight or nine feet from tip to tip. When standing erect, the sandfull crane is full five feet high; the tail is quite short, but the feathers pendent on each side of the rump are very long, of a delicate silky softness, and sharp-pointed. The crown of the head is bare of feathers, and of a reddish rose color, but thinly barbed with short, stiff, black hair. When the wings are moved in flight, their strokes are slow, moderate and regular, and, even

when at a considerable distance above us, we plainly hear the quill-feathers, as their shafts and webs rub upon one another, creaking like the joints of a vessel in a tempestuous sea (Bartram). The sand-hill crane is common, and breeds in the savannas of Florida. It is also found in various parts of the American states and territorics. It is most rare in the middle portions of the Union.

CRANIOLOGY. (See Phrenology.)

Crank; an iron axis with the end bent like an elbow, for the purpose of moving a piston, the saw in a sawmill, &c., causing it to rise and fall at every turn; also for turning a grindstone, &c. The common crank affords one of the simplest and most useful methods for changing circular into alternate motion, and vice versa. Double and triple cranks are likewise of the greatest use for transmitting circular motion to a distance. In fact, cranks belong to those few simple elements on which the most complicated machines rest, and which, like the lever, are con-

stantly employed.

CRANMER, Thomas, famous in the Enghsh reformation, during the reign of Henry VIII, was born in 1489. He entered as a student of Jesus college, Cambridge, in 1503, took the degree of M. A., obtained a fellowship, and, in 1523, was chosen reader of theological lectures in his college, and examiner of candidates for degrees in divinity. In the course of conversation on the then meditated divorce of Henry-VIII from his first wife, Catharine of Arragon, Cranmer remarked that the question of its propriety might be better decided by consulting learned divines and ment vers of the universities than by an appeal to the pope. The opmon thus delivered hay a been reported to the king by doctor  $F_{ir}$ x, his majesty was high-ly delighted with it, exclaiming, at the prospect it afforded him of being able to remove the obstaters to the gratification of his passions, "by ---, the man has got the sow by the r. ht ear!" Cranmer was sent for to court, made a king's chaplam, and commanded to write a treatise on the subject of the divorce. In 1530, he was sent abroad, with others, to collect the opinions of the divines and canonists of France, Italy and Germany, on the validity of the king's marriage. At Rome, he presented his treatise to the pope, and afterwards proceeded to Germany, here he obtained for his opinions the sanction of a great number of German divines and civilians, and formed such intimate connexions with the rising party of the Prot-

estants, a probably influenced greatly his futule conduct. He also contracted marriage, though in holy orders, with the niece of doctor Osiander, a famous Protestant divine. Cranmer was employed by the king to conclude a commercial treaty obetween England and the Netherlands; after which he was ordered home, to take possession of the metropolitan see of Canterbury. He hesitated to accept of this dignity, professing to be scrupulous about applying to the pope for the bulls necessary for his consecration. This difficulty was obviated by a vague and secret protestation, which can be justified only on the Jesuitical principle of the lawfulness of mental reservations or virtual falsehoods. The application being therefore made in the usual manner to the court of Rome, the pall and bulls were sent. Soon after, he set the papal authority at defiance, by pronouncing sentence of divorce between Henry and Catharme, and confirming the king's marriage with Anne Boleyn. The pope threatened excommunication, and an act of parliament was immediately passed for abolishing the pope's suprema-; mer's ecclesiastical government, Joan Bocy, and declaring the king chief head of the church of England. The archbishop employed all his influence in forwarding such measures as might give permanence to the reformation. The Bible was transto the reformation. lated nito English, and dispersed among the people; the monastic institutions were suppressed; the superstitious observances connected with them were abolished; and provision was made for the instruction of . all ranks in the principles of the prevailing party. In 1536, the casuistry of Cranmer was a second time exerted to gratify the base passions of his tyrannical soveregn. When Anne Boleyn was destined to lose her reputation and her life, that the king might take another consect, it was determined also to bastardize 1 r issue; and the archbishop meanly stooled to pronounce a sentence of divorce, on the plea that the queen had confessed o him her having been contracted to lord Percy, before her marriage with the king. The complimarrage with the king. ances of the primate served to ensure him the gratitude of Henry, though he was obliged to make some important sacrifices to royal prejudice, which was strongly in favor of the ancient faith, where that did not tend to curb the king's own passions or prerogatives. In 1539 was passed an act of parliament, called the bloody act, condemning to death all who supported the right of marriage of priests, and commusion of both kinds to the laity, and who opposed transubstantiation, auricular

confession, vows of chastity and the necessity of private masses. Cranmer opposcd, as long as he dared, this enactment; but, finding his efforts vain, he gave way, and sent his own wife back to her friends in Germany. He subsequently succeeded in carrying some points in favor of further reformation; and, in 1540, he published a work for popular use, chiefly of his own composition, entitled the Necessary Erudition of a Christian Man. On the death of Henry, in 1546—7, the archbishop was left one of the executors of his will, and member of the regency appointed to govern the kingdom during the minority of Edward VI. He united his interest with that of the earl of Hertford, afterwards duke of Somerset, and proceeded to model the church of England according to the notions of Zuinglius, rather than those of Luther. By his instrumentality, the liturgy was drawn up and established by act of parliament, and articles of religion were compiled, the validity of which was enforced by royal authority, and for which infallibility was claimed. Under Crancher and George van Paris were burnt as hereties; and the fate of the former is rendered peculiarly striking by the fact that the primate, by his spiritual authority and pressing importunity, constrained the young king to sign the death warrant for the auto-darfe of the unhappy crimmal, which he would not do till he had disburdened his own conscience, by telling the archbishop that, if the deed were sinful, he should answer for it to God. The exclusion of the princess Mary from the crown, by the will of her brother, was a measure in which Cranmer joined the partisans of lady Jane Grey, apparently in opposition to his own judgment. With others who had been most active in her elevation, he was sent to the Tower on the accession That princess had personal of Mary. obligations to Cranmer, who is said to have preserved her from the anger of her futher, which menaced her with destruction, for her pertinacious adherence to the Catholic faith; but she could not forget or forgive the disgrace of her mother and herself, in effecting which, the archbishop had been so important an agent; he was therefore destined to become the victim of popish ascendency. He was tried before commissioners sent from Rome, on' the charges of blasphemy, perjury, incontinence and heresy, and cited to appear within 80 days at Rome, to deliver, in person, his vindication to the pope. To comply with this mandate was impossible,

as he was detained in prison; nevertheless he was declared contumacious for not making his appearance, and sentenced to , be degraded and deprived of office. After this, flattering promises were made, which induced him to sign a recantation of his alleged errors, and become, in fact, a Catholic convert. The triumph of his chemies was now complete, and nothing was wanting but the sacrifice of their abused and degraded victim. Oxford was the scene of his execution; but, to , make the tragedy more impressive, he was placed on a scaffold in St. Mary's church, the day he was to suffer, there to listen to a declaration of his faults and heresics, his extorted penitence, and the necessity of his explating, by his death, errors which Heaven alone could pardon, but which were of an enormity too portentous to be passed over by an earthly "tribunal. Those who planned this pro-ceeding accomplished but half their object. Instead of confessing the justness of his sentence, and submitting to it in · silence, or imploring mercy, he calmly acknowledged that the fear of death hadmade him behe his conscience; and declared that nothing could afford him' consolation but the prospect of extenuating his guilt by encountering, as a Protestant penitent, with irmness and re-ignation, the fiery torments which awaited him. He was immediately hurried to the stake,

where he behaved with the resolution of a martyr, keeping his right hand, with which he had signed his recantation, extended in the flames, that it might be consumed before the rest of his body, exclaiming, from time to tune, "That unworthy, hand!" He was executed March 21, 1555-6. The fate of Cranmer has shed a false lustre over his character, and procured him the reputation of a Protestant martyr, while he was, in reality, the victing of party malice and personal revenge. Successively a Catholic, a Lutheran, a Zuinglian, a defender of transubstantiation, and then a persecutor of those who believed that doctrine, the soundness, if not the sincerity of his faith, may fairly be questioned. Even the purity of his motives, as a reformer, is rendered somewhat doubtful, by the fact of his having obtained, on very advantageous terms, immerous grants of estates which had belonged to suppressed monasteries. His private character, however, was annable; and, whatever may have been his principles, no doubts can exist as to the emmence of his talents. His continued favor with the capricious Henry is a decisive proof of his mental superiority. He steadily pursned his grand object, the independence of the English church, to the establishment of which he contributed far beyond any other individual.

### Note to the Article COLOMBIA, in this I olume.

According to our promise in that article, we give here the principal facts which have occurred in Colombia since the article were to press, though there is no prospect of a speedy establishment of tranquility in that counting. In the month of January, 1830, Venezuela declared herself independent of Colombia, In the instigation of general Paez. Some accounts say he compelled the Veneze, hans to take this step. Bolivar, about the same time, solemnly declared, at Bogotá every imputation against him as aiming at a crown to be false. A convention is now assembled for the purpose of preparing a new constitution for Colombia. The character of the projected constitution, according to the accounts which have been received, is dute liberal. Whether it is adapted to the state of the country, is another consideration. Bolivar is said to be sinking in popularity. He retired in February temporarily from the government, or account of ill health. It is reported that Paez is using foreible means to compel the Venezuelians to remain separate from Colombia, with which they are disposed to unite under a federal government.

## CONTENTS.

Cathohe Epistles   3	Page	Cazwini (Zacharia Ben Mo-	Centre (Le) 37
Catholicism (see Roman Catholic Church) Cathane (Lucius Sergius) Cathine (Lucius Sergius) Cathine (Lucius Sergius) Catholic Censor Of Utica Of Utica Of Utica Of Utica Of Utica Catoptrics Of Ceropia (see Athens) Catoptrics Of Lebanon Of Cercach (Joseph) Of Ceropia (see Athens) Of Lebanon Of	Catholic Epistles 3	hammed) 19	Centrifugal Force "
chiller Cluems Sergius) . "Cecil (Win, lord Burleigh) . "Cathine (Lucius Sergius) . "Cecil (Robert)	Catholicism (see Roman Cath-	Cebes of Thehes "	
Cathine (Lucins Sergins) . " Cationat (Nicholas)	olic Church)	Cecil (Wm , lord Burleigh) . "	
Cato the Censor	Catiline (Lucius Sergius) 5 49	(Robert) 20	
Cato the Censor	Catmat (Nicholas) 4	Cecilia (St.)	
Cats (James) Cats	Cate the Censor 5	Cecrous 91	
Cats (James) Cats	of Heat	Cogramy (Log Athone)	
Cats (James) Cats	Contractions 9	Codon	Compoly (By out) 30
Catskill Mountains . "Celalona (see Cephalona) 22 Calsing (see Ketchup) . "Celano (see Harpies) . "Celano (see Ketchup) . "Celano (see Harpies) . "Celesine . "Cel	t atoptries	of Laborer (	
Catskill Mountains . "Celalona (see Cephalona) 22 Calsing (see Ketchup) . "Celano (see Harpies) . "Celano (see Ketchup) . "Celano (see Harpies) . "Celesine . "Cel	(ats (James)	of Lebunon	
Catsball Mountams (Catson (see Kechap) (Catson (see Kechap) (Catson (see Harpies) (Catter (Ceres) (Cer	Cat's-eye (see Asteria and	(icea) · · · ·	
Catsup (see Ketchup) Cattaro C	Quartz)	(Winte)	
Cattaro Cattaro Cattaro Cattina (Celestine I and V (popes) (Centus) (Centus) (Centus) (Celestine I and V (popes) (Centus) (Centus	Catskill Mountains		
Cattaro Cattaro Cattaro Cattina (Celestine I and V (popes) (Centus) (Centus) (Centus) (Celestine I and V (popes) (Centus) (Centus	('atsup (see Ketchup) "	Celæno (see Harpies) "	Ceres 41
Cattegat Cattillus (Cams Valerus) Catullus (Cams Valerus) Cauloni (see Alghamstan) Caucasus Cauchors-Lemane (L A F) Canens Canchors-Lemane (L A F) Canens Candhae Forks (see Avellmo) Candhae Forks (see Avellmo) Caulding Caustine Caulong Caustine Caustine Caustine Caustine Cavaler Cavaler Cavaler Cavalus Cavalu	Cattaro	Celebes	Cereus, Night-blooming (see
Catullus (Cains Valerius) 9 (Celsunes . "Celsunes . "Celsunds (Cains Valerius) 9 (Celsunes . "Callarius (Cains Valerius) 9 (Celsunes (Christopher) . "Cellarius (Christopher) . "Cerquiozzi (Michael Angelo) . "Cendidarius (Cellarius (Cellarius (Centarius . "Celtarius . "Celtarius . "Celtarius . "Centarius .	Cattegat . "	Celestine I and V (popes) "	Cactus) "
Cathilis (Cams Valerius) . 9 (Celhacy Cantonio Giudice) 20 (Cellarmas (Antonio Giudice) 20 (Cellarmas (Christopher) . 6 (Cellarmas (Christopher) . 7 (Cerrum Canchors-Lemane (L. A. F.) 11 (Cellin (Benvenuto) 27 (Cerrum Candine Forks (see Avellino) 6 (Cellar Substance Candine Forks (see Avellino) 7 (Cellular Substance Candine Forks (see Avellino) 7 (Cellular Substance Candine Forks (see Avellino) 8 (Cellular Substance Candine Forks (see Avellino) 8 (Cellular Substance Candine Forks (see Avellino) 8 (Cellular Substance Cardina (Antonio Giudice) 8 (Cellular Substance Cardina (Cellular Substance Certorari 42 (Certorari 42 (Cellus Cardina (Cellular Substance Cellular S	Catti	Celesunes	Cengo (island)
Caulamare (Antomo Giudoe) Caucasus Caucasus Caucasus Cauchors-Lemane (L A F) 11 Callama (Cellular Substance	Catallas (Cams Valerus) . 9	Cehbacy 23	(town)'
Calcasins Canchors-Lemanc (L A F 11 Calchin (Benvenuto) Calchin (Certification (Celtro Certification) Calchin (Certification) Calchin (Celtro Celtro		Cellamare (Antonio Giudice) 26	Cerinthus (see Gnostics, and
Cauchors-Lemane (L. A. F.) 11 Cellm (Benvenuto) 27 (Cerum Craquozzi (Michael Angelo) Cauchine Forks (see Avellino) Cellular Substance Cauchine Forks (see Avellino) Cellular Substance Cettes (Cornelius) 28 (Certiorari 42 (Certiorari			
Candame Forks (see Avellmo) Caulding Caulding Caulding Column Caulding Column C	Carolon-Longino (L. A. E.) 11	Collen (Renyemuta) 97	Comm
Canding   Calking   Celes (Aurelius Cornelius)   28   Certiorar   42   Celuse   Ce		(1.Dal Sal. Aman	Commence (Manhard Aumola)
Caustic Caustic Celiberi Colliberi C		Colon (Amalina Comolina) 00	Continue of the continue of th
Caustic Caustic Celiberi Colliberi C		Cerus (Aureinis Cornelius) 20	Contorari
Potassa   12   Celibert   Cenemation   Cervaintes Saavedra (Miguel Cavaleant (Giudo)   Cenemation   Cervaintes Saavedra (Miguel Cavaleant (Giudo)   Cenemation   Cenemation   Cervaintes Saavedra (Miguel de)   Cavaleant (Cenemation   Cenemation   Cervaintes Saavedra (Miguel de)   Cavaleant (Cenemation   Cenemation   Cervaintes Saavedra (Miguel de)   Cevaluainte   Cesar (Sear (Sear (Sear (Miguel de)   Cesar (Sear (Sear (Miguel de)   Cesar (Sear (Sear (Sear (Miguel de)   Ceta (Sear (Sear (Sear (Miguel de)   Ceta (Sear (Sear (Sear (Miguel de)   Ceta (Sear (Sear (Miguel de)   Ceta (Sear (Sear (Sear (Miguel de)   Ceta (Sear (Migue			
Cavalcant (Giudo)		( Chert onition .	Centin (Giuseppe Antomo
Cavaleant (Gudo)			Joachimo)
Cavaile   Cava	Soda	Cementation "	Cervantes Saavedra (Miguel
Cavalry	Cavalcanti (Giudo) "	Cements 29	de) . '' ''
Cavalry	Cavaher	Cemeters 30	Cesar (see Casar) . 43
Cavamiles (Antonio Joseph) 111 (Cenis (Mount) 31 (Cestus 44 (Ceto (see Phoreus) 45 (Ceto (s	Cavalry .	Cener (Beatrice) "	Cesarotti (Melchior) "
Cenotate   Ceto (see Phoreus)   Ceto (see Phoreus	Cavaniles (Antonio Joseph) 111	Cems (Mount) 31	
Cave	Cavatma		Ceto (see Phoreus) "
- (Edward) 15 (Cenotaph Cavenidesh (Thomas) Censors (William, diske of Newcastle) Books, Censorship of Books (see Books, Censorship of Censors (Censorship of Censorship o		Monasters ) "	
Cevoridish (Thomas)	(Eduard) 15	Cenotaph "	
Censorship of Books (see   Cevallos (don Pedro)	Connect h (Thomas )	Compagn	Cava /Thomas)
Newcastle   "   Books, Censorship of   "   Cevenies   45   (William, first duke of Deonshire)   16   Censis   "   Censis   32   Chaban (count of )   48   (Henry )   "   Centiaurs   "   Chaban (count of )   48   Chaban (count of )   49   Chaban (count of )   48   49   Chaban (count of )   48   Chaban (	(William delay of	Concerbus of Rocks from	Corollon (don Podro)
Census   Ceylon   47   Ceylon   47   Ceylon   47   Ceylon   48   Ceylon   48   Ceylon   48   Ceylon   49   Ceylo	(William, diske of	Part Care land	Covanos (don redro).
of Devonshire) . 16 (Centaurs	Newcasue) . "	Books, Censorship of ) "	t evenues 45)
Caston (William)  Centant Centant Chabert (Joseph Bernard) Chasting (Centance Charles) Chabert (Joseph Bernard) Chasting (Centing de (see Thermometer) Chacton (William) Centing de Centing	(William, arst duke	Census	Ceylon 47
Caviare Centiare Chabert (Joseph Bernard) Caviania (provinc) 17 Centigrade (see Thermometer) Chaedword (town) Centigrade (see Briareus) Chaedword (battle of) Cavian (William) Centiped Chaedword (Chaedword) Chaedword (Cha	of Devoishite) . 16	Centaurs 32	Chaban (count of) . : 48
Castanar a (province) 17 Centigrade (see Thermometer) (he fire king) 49 Caston (William) (Centined	(	Centaury "	Chabanon
Caston (William) "Centinged " Chacabuco (battle of)	Caviare	Centure "	Chaper (Joseph Bernard) .
Caston (William) "Centiniam (see Briarcus) "Chacabuco (battle of) "Caston (William) "Centined "Chactaws (see Choctaws) . "	Caxamarca (province) . 17	Centigrade (see Thermometer) **	(the fire king)
Caxton (William) " Centiped " Chactaws (see Choctaws) . "	(town) "	Centiniani (see Briareus) — "	Chacabuco (battle of)
00 (41	Caston (William)	Centined	Chactaws (see Choctaws). "
(island) . " Centhyre (Susanna) . 34 Chafalaya . " Chagaing . " Chagaing . "		41 4 7	
(town) . " Cento " Chagaing "	(island)	Centhyre (Susanna) 34	Chafalaya
or Classic	(town) "	Cento	Chagaing
	Paragraph (	Canted America 35	Chaillot "
Tepper	10 10 10 10	Free 47	Chair (m curvos mer).
Cayrs (14ts)	t dyes (1.65)	Parent	(in nout of language)
Capital (count of)	Cayens (count of)	Mother (see Charles	Calda (an Calda)
Cavman (see Alligator)	Cavman (see Alligator) "	mouon (see Lirchlar	able (see Cable).
Cazotte (Jacques) "   Motion) "   Timber	Cazotte (Jacques) "	Motion) "	I limber

٠	-3					
	Chain-Wales (see Channels).	101	Chanol Hill	65	Charters	107
	Charge Dian de la lene Le		Chandlain (Isan)	46	Chartranea . V	•4.
	Chaise, Père de la (see La-	. 1	Chapelani (Jean)	7.	Charteruse	
	chaise, and Cemetery)	••	Chapelle (a French poet)	•••	Charybdis Chase (Samuel) Chase (Samuel)	••
	Chalcedon	4.	Chaplain	"	Chase (Samuel)	"
	("halassland	1	Channa d'Autoroche (Isau)	GG	Chasma	108
	Chalcedony	~1	Catalyte a sente social far airly .	***	Charack!	
	Chaldea	1	(Claude)		Chasseki	
	Chaldman Christians (see Sects.		Charlel Llean Aniome Claude)	••	Chasteler (marous of)	**
	Syrian Christians, and Chris-		Chapter	67	Chastelet (marquis du)	
		51			Châteaubriand (vicomte de) 1	109 ′
	tians of St. Thomas)			٧.	Chatana and the land	
	Chalk (see Lime)		Masks		Chateamoux (duchess of)	111
	Challenge to Jurors	••	Charade	"	Chatelet (fortiess)	•
	to fight a Duel		Charcoal	68	, marchioness of (see	
	Chalant (for a setting of the marmy)		Charden (Lean)	"	Chastelet)	119
	Chalons (fwo cities of this name)		Chardin (atan)	••	Chathan ( Rouleul)	
	Chalotars (Lonis Rene de Car-		Charente	-		••
	adeuc de la)	**	Charenton	41		
	Chamade	52	Charette de la Contne (sce		America of this	
	Chamber	"	Vendee)	**	name.)	
	Canada Ca		Channa d'Adama, Lon Nunu		(carl of)	• 1
	- of Deputies (see		Charge d'Affaires (see Minis-		CU 11 COLOR	
	Charte Constitu-		ter, Foreign)	••	Chatillon (congress of, with	
	tionnelle) .	53	Charity, Brothers and Sisters		the contemporary military	
	of Peers (see Charte		of Car Protomotor )	"		113
	Constitution 41-1		Charles		1	113
	Constitutionnelle)		t lidikow	ç.	(The success of Parish and	
	Chamberlan	•••	Charlatan	()2)		119
	Chamberlan	••	Charlemagne	•••	Chance	150
	A'hamberry .	١. ا	Charlemagne Charlemont and Givet	72	Chaudet (Antome Dems) .	•
			Charleroy		Chandiere	
	Chambers (Ephraun)				Chandon (Louis Mateul)	
	(see Houses of		Charles Martel	10	( nandon (Louis Maicui)	
	Legislature, and		IV, emperor of Ger-		Chauftepre (Jacques George	
	Charte Constitu-		many	**	de)	121
	• tionnelle)	31	I ammorar of Ger-		Chaulieu (Ginllatane Amtive	
	connene)		v, emperor or carr		de)	
	Chambord	•••	many and emit of			
	Chambre Ardente	••	, Spain , .	75	Channont (treaty of '	•
	Introuvable	٠	V. emperor of Germany and king of Spain . V. emperor of Germany and king of Spain . VI. emperor of Germany VI.		Chauncy (Charles)	•
	Chancleon	35	mauy '	78	Chaussée (Pierre Claude Ni-	
	Chamisso (Adalbert de) .	àt.	VII .	79	velle de la)	
	Chamois	•••	the Rold !	50		122
	Observed by Authorities	~~	the Bold '		Chauvehn (marquis de)	**
	Chamonule (see Camonule)	"	VILOU Plance (See			
	(Koman)	••	France, and Joan of		Chaux de Fonds (La)	
	Chamoum	٠	Art) .	82		123
	Champagne (in France)	•		•	Cheke (ar John)	
	(Plelas)	٠	- X king of France	• 6	[Chelsea Hospital (see Hos-	
	(Phthp) (a knd of wme)		- VII sof France (see France, and Joan of Art) - 4X, king of France - X king of France - I, king of England - II, king of England - Edward Smart (see - Edward)	85	pital)	
	Allower sale	30	II know of Pugland	20	Cheltecham	
	Champarty		Para J. Sant Lea		Chemical Affinity (see Chem-	
	Champ Clo-		13.1 Paris Printer Lace.	01		124
	d'Asile de Bataille de Mars		Edward)	.,1	Somewelston	1 - 5
	de Batailic	•	XII, king of Sweden		Tassincation and	
	de Mars		\III, king of Sweden	91	( TOTAL OF FOREITY	127
	Champe (John)	30	- XIV king of Sweden		Chemistry	121
		٠,	- Emanuel I, doke of		Shemmtz (town)	123
	Champtort (Schastien Roch			98	(M	
		(1)	Savoy	741	(martin)	
	Champion		I king of Spain (see		Chelog (Martin) Chelog (Martin) Chelog (Martin) Chelog (See Draughts)	
		1	Charles V, emperor		[Chg/f,&is (see Draughts)	150
	- (lake)	••	of Germany	.,.,	[ 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	••
	(lake) (mal		Other trans Of Germany IV Imp of Spain	••	ChCibon (principality)	
	Character (1.71)		t and or spann			
					(town) Reef	
	Figure (J J)		Austria		- neer	
	Chance Figure (J J )	•	Austria Augustus of Wennai (see Wennar)s River Charleston		Cherokees	
	Medle v	•	(see Wennar) u	(0)	Cheronèa (sce Charonea)	1.30
	Chancel .		River	• '	Cherry C	•
	Chancellor		Charleston		Laurel .	
	(L. 1)		Charlestown	ıΛı	Cherson	
	(lord high)	٠	Charlestown			131
	(vice)	1.5	Oharlevore (Peter Francis			1.71
	of the Exchequer	•	Xavici de)		Cherub	
	of the Duchy of		Charlotte Augusta	•	Chernban (Luigi)	•
	. Lancaster		Charlottenburg		Cheruser	٠
	of Oxford		Charlottesville		Chesapenke Pay	1.12
Ĥ	of Cembridge				Cheselden (Wilham)	
1	or Change		('haron			
	Chancery (see Equity, Comts.	١.	Charost (duke of).		Ches	1 : 4
		1 e	Charpentier (I F G.) .	•		P:1
	Changes (see Combination) .	••	Chari (see Map)	••	Chest	
	Channel (English)	"	Charta, Magna (see Magna		Chester.	
	Channels		(Tharta)	• •	Chesterfield (earl of ) . 💢	••
	Chant (see Church Music)	1	Charte Constitutionnelle .	٠.	Chestnut	135
		. !	. mile come comounts in	06	Horse (see Horse-	
	Chantrey (Francis)			07		
	Chaos					

('hetal (à)	135	Chord	161	Church-Yard (see Burying-
Chevaux de Frise	٠.	Choregraphy	"	Places, and Cemetery) 189
Chezy (Antome Leonard)	"	Choriambus	**	(Chyle (see Chyme)
Chiabrera (Gabriel)	4	Chorography	162	
Chiaous		Chorus (in the drama)	••	(Cibber (Colley) 190
Chiaramonti (Pius VII)	136	(m music)	"	(Theophilus)
Chiari (Pietro)		Chostoes I	44	Ciborium "
Chiaro scuro	٠	II	4.	Cicada (see Grasshopper)
Chicken, Mother Carey's (see		Chouans		Cicero (Marcus Tullius)
Petrel) .	**	Chough	163	Cicerono 194
Chilinahna (state)	• •	Chounla	44	Cheisbeo
(town)	٠.	Chrism	4.6	Cheognara (count of)
Chilblains .		Clast	ı.i	Cicuta 19"
Childernas Day .	137	(nictores of)	4.	Cid (the)
Clule		(picteres of)		Cular 197
Chillicothe	1.39	Ostord)	16.1	Cider
Chillingworth (William)	4.	Christ's Hospital	***	Cuba) 193
Chiloe .	1.10	Christian II,		Cignani (Carlo)
Chiltern Hills		VII	14:4:	1 ( ') (2001 )
Hundreds	**	Christiana	167	Cihemm 199
Chimera (see Chimera)		Christante	477	Cunabue (Giovanni)
	••	Christianty Christians		Cimaiosa (Domenico)
Chunay (Theresa) Chunborazo	111	() saut		Cimarosa (Domenico)
	1,11	(a sect) of St. Thomas		
Chimera			,~,	Cmon 200
Climes		Christiansand	1/1	Cualoa (protuce) . 2015
Climiney	113	Christians-Oe .		11179111,
Chinney sweeps		Christina		Cinchona (see Bark, Peru-
Chana	•	Christmas	173	
Chara		Christophe (Henri)	•	is memmin to society to
	190	Christopher (duke of Win-		(city in Olio) 20%
Chinese Language, Writing		temberg)	175	Cincinnatus (Lucius Quinc-
a <b>n</b> d Laterature	1 19	(St ) St (an island in	**	tms) '
Style in Architec-				Cinna (Lucius Cornelius)
ture (see Archi-		the West In-		(Cornelius) 20.3
	150	des)	176	Cinnabai (see Mercury)
Chro		Chromate of Iron	••	Cinnamon
- Chippeway (town in 1'pper		Chromatic	••	Cmo da Pistoia
Canada)	••	Chronge		Cuique Ports 204
(river in the U		Chromic Acid (see Chrome)	177	Ciplier .
States) •1	••	Chronic	"	Cipbers .
( Torreson 11 )			•••	
Chippeways .	-	Chronicle v		[Cipriam (Giambattista) 🔒 😕
Chiquitos		Chronodistich		Cheassia 205
Chiqintos Climagra		Chronodistich Chronology		
Chiqintos Climagra		Chronodistich	178	Cheassia 205
Chiquitos		Chronodistich Chronology	178	Circle 206 ————————————————————————————————————
Chiqintos Climagra Climograph (see Charter)		Chronodistich Chronology Chronometer	178	Cheassa 205 Chee Circle 206
Chiqintos Climagra Clinograph (see Charter) Clinology		Chronodistich Chronology Chronometer Chrysalis (see Papibo)	178	Circle 206 ————————————————————————————————————
Chiquitos Climagra Climographi (see Charter) Climology Climonianev Climon	 • 151	Chronodistich Chronology Chronometer Chrysalis (see Papibo) Chryseis (see Achilles), Chrysippus	178	Circassia
Chiqintos Climagra Climograph (yee Charter) Chirology Chiron Chiron Chiron	 • 151	Chronodistich Chronology Chronometer Chrysalis (see Papibo) Chryseis (see Achilles) Chrysopheryl	178	Circassia
Chiqintos Climagra Climograph (yee Charter) Chirology Chiron Chiron Chiron	 • 151	Chronodistich Chronology Chronometer Chrysalis (see Papibo) Chryseis (see Achilles) Chrysopheryl	178 179	Cheassa   205   Chee   206   Chee   206   Cheuts   Cheular Motion   Saws   207   Cheulating Medium   207   Cheulating Me
Chiqintos Climagra Climograph (yee Charter) Chirology Chiron Chiron Chiron	 • 151	Chronodistich Chronology Chronometer Chrysalis (see Papibo) Chryseis (see Achilles) Chrysopheryl	178	Cheassia   205   Chee   206   Chee   206   Chember   Chember   207   Chember
Chiqintos Climagra Climograph (yee Charter) Chirology Chiron Chiron Chiron	 • 151	Chronodistich Chronology Chronometer Chrysalis (see Papibo) Chryseis (see Achilles) Chrysopheryl	178	Cheassia   205
Chiqintos Climagra Climograph (yee Charter) Chirology Chiron Chiron Chiron	 • 151	Chronodistich Chronology Chronometer Chrysalis (see Papibo) Chryseis (see Achilles) Chrysopheryl	178 179	Chicassia   205   Chice   206   Chice   206   Chick   206   Chicuits   4   Chicuits   4   Chicuits   4   Chicuits   4   Chicuits   207   Chiculating Medium   4   Chiculation of the Blood (See Physiology)   Chicumersion   209   Chicumersion   205   Chicassian
Chiqintos Climagra Climograph (yee Charter) Chirology Chiron Chiron Chiron	 • 151	Chronodistich Chronology Chronometer Chrysalis (see Papibo) Chryseis (see Achilles), Chryspies	178 179 180 181	Cincassia 9
Chiqintos Climagra Chirograph (see Charter) Chirology Chirology Chironianev Chironianev Chironianev Chironianev Chironia Chironianev Chironia Frederie) Chloria Acid (see Chloriae) Chloride of Nitrogen (see Chloriae)	151 151 155 4	Chronodistich Chronology Chronology Chrysals (see Papibo) Chryses (see Achilles). Chrysopus Chrysoletyl Chrysolit Chillian Chillian	178 179 180 181	Cincassia 9
Chiqintos Clinagra Clinograph (see Charter) Chirology Chironanicy Chiron Chiron Chiron Chironomy Chivahy Chladin (Fanest Plorence Frederic) Chloric Acid (see Chlorine). Chloride of Nitrogen (see Chloric) Chlorine	151	Chronodistich Chronology Chronometer Chrysalis (see Papibo) Chryseis (see Achilles), Chryspies	178 179 180 181	Circassia*
Chiqintos Clinagra Clinograph (see Charter) Chrology Chromanev Chron Chron Chronomy Chyaliv Clidadin (Ernest Plorence Frederic) Chloride of Nitrogen (see Chlorine) Chlorite (see Tale)	151	Chronodistich Chronology Chronology Chronology Chrysers (see Achilles) Chrysers (see Achilles) Chrysology Chrysology Chrysology Chrysology Chrysology Chrysology Chrysostom (St) Chulde (Thomas) Challe (Thomas) Challe (Thomas) Challe (See Core) Church	178 179 	Cincassia 9 205 Cince 206 Cince 206 Cincuits 206 Cincuits 207 Cincuits
Chiqintos Clinagra Chrograph (see Charter) Chrology Chronome Chronic Chronic Chronic Chronic Chronic Fridere) Chloric Acid (see Chloric) Chloride of Nitrogen (see Chloride) Chloride (see Chloride) Chloride Chloride (see Chloride) Chloride Chlorid	151 151 153 157 157	Chronodistich Chronology Chronology Chrysals (see Papibo) Chryses (see Achilles) Chrysopus Chrysolit Chuhuans Chaincanas Chaincanas Chunusaca Chin (see Core) Church ————————————————————————————————————	178 179 	Cheassia   205
Chiqintos Clinagra Chrostaph (see Charter) Chrology Chronianey Chron Chorn Chloric Acid (see Chlorie) Chloride of Nitrogen (see Chlorine) Chlorit Chlori	151 151 153 157 157	Chronodistich Chronology Chronology Chrysals (see Papibo) Chryses (see Achilles) Chrysopus Chrysolit Chuhuans Chaincanas Chaincanas Chunusaca Chin (see Core) Church ————————————————————————————————————	178 179 	Cincassia 9
Chiqintos Clinagra Clinagraph (see Charter) Chirology Chironanicy Chiron Chlorite Acid (see Chlorine) Chlorite Chiro C	151 151 153 157 157	Chronodistich Chonology Chronology Chronology Chrysels (see Papibo) Chrysels Chryspits Chrysolit	178 179 	Cincassia 9 205 Cince 206 Cincle 206 Cincuits 206 Cincuits 207 Cincuits 207 Cincuits 207 Cincuits 207 Cincuits 207 Cincuits 207 Cinculation of the Blood (see Physiology) 209 Cincumarying 207 Cincumarying 207 Cincuits 207 Cincu
Chiqintos Climagra Chirograph (see Charter) Chirology Chirology Chironanev Chiron Chironomy Chironomy Chironin Chironomy Chironin Chironin Chironic Frederic) Chloride of Nitrogen (see Chloride Chloride of Nitrogen (see Chloride Chloride (see Catan) Chloride Chorolate (see Catan) Chocdaws Choctaws Choctaws Choctaws	151 151 153 157 157	Chronodistich Chronology Chronology Chronology Chrysols (see Papibo) Chrysols Chrysoliey Chalicanas Chaircanas Chaircanas Chaircanas Chaircanas Charch  - Eastern (see Greck  - Church  - Eagland (see England, Charch of)	178 179 	Cincassia 9
Chiqintos Clinagra Chrograph (see Charter) Chrology Chronome Chronomy Chronomy Chronomy Chronomy Chrodin (Ernest Plorence Frederic) Chloric Acid (see Chlorine). Chloride of Nitrogen (see Chloride of Nitrogen (see Chloride (see Tale) Chloride Chloride (see Cacao) Chocolate (see Cacao) Chocolate (see Cacao) Chocolate	151 151 153 157 157	Chronodistich Chronology Chronology Chronology Chrysels (see Papibo) Chrysels (see Achilles) Chrysopus Chrysolite Church  Eastern (see Greek Church  Tand, Church of  And, Church of  Greek (see Greek	178 179 	Cincassia*
Chiqintos Clinagra Clinagra Chrology Chrology Chronomy Chron Chron Chronomy Chryshy Chladin (Ernest Plorence Frederic) Chloric Acid (see Chlorine). Chloride of Nitrogen (see Chlorine) Chlorite Chlorite Chlorite Chlorite Chlorite Chocolate (see Catan) Chocolate Choco	151 151 153 157 157	Chronodistich Chonology Chronology Chronology Chrosels (see Papibo) Chryspits Chryspits Chrysolit Chrysoli	17: 17: · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Cincassia 2005 Cince Curcle Curcle Curcle Curclatr Motion Saws Cinculating Medium Cinculation of the Blood (see Physiology) Cincumavigators Cincumavigators Cincumavigators Cincumavigators Cincums Cincumavigators Cincumavig
Chapintos Climagra Chirograph (see Charter) Chirology Chirology Chironanev Chiron Chironomy Chirodhy Chirodhy Chirodhy Chirodhy Chirona Frederic) Chlorite Acid (see Chlorine) Chlorite	151 151 157 158 159	Chronodistich Chonology Chronology Chronology Chrysels (see Papibo) Chrysels (see Achilles) Chrysopus Chrysopus Chrysolit Church Church — Eastern (see Greek	17: 17: · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Cincassia* Cince Cince Circle Circle Circle Circle Circle Circlit Circulat Motion ————————————————————————————————————
Chapintos Climagra Chirograph (see Charter) Chirology Chirology Chiromaney Chiromane	151 151 157 158 159	Chronodistich Chronology Chronology Chronology Chrysals (see Papibo) Chryses (see Achilles) Chrysopus Chrysolit Chry	17: 179 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Cincassia* Cince Cince Cince Cincle Cincle Cincle Cincuits Cincular Motion Saws Cinculating Medium Cinculation of the Blood (see Physiology) Cincumersion Cincumavigators Cinc
Chiqintos Clinagra Chrology Chrology Chrology Chronomy Chron Chrono Chrono Chrono Chrono Chrono Chrono Chrono Chrono Chloric Acid (see Chlorine) Chloric Acid (see Chlorine) Chloric Chlorine Ch	 151  153  157 	Chronodistich Chronology Chronology Chronology Chrysels (see Papibo) Chrysels (see Achilles) Chrysopus Chrysopus Chrysolous Chuch Chrysolous Chuch Eastern (see Greek Chrysolous Chuch) Greek (see Greek Chrysolous Chuch) Chuch Chrysolous Catholic Chrysolous Catholic Church) Choman Catholic Church) Choman Catholic Church) Choman Catholic Chinch)	17: 179 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Cincassia* Cince Circle Circle Circle Circle Circle Circle Circlating Motion Saws Circulating Medium Circulation of the Blood (see Physiology) Circumarsion Circumarsion Circumarsion Circumarsion Circle Cir
Chaintos Climagra Chrodosy Chrology Chrology Chronomy Chlorite Acid (see Chlorine) Chlorite Chlorite Chlorite (see Tale) Chlorite Chlorite (see Tale) Chlorite Chlori		Chronodistich Chonology Chronology Chronology Chrosels (see Papibo) Chrysels (see Achilles) Chrysopus Chrysolat Chrysolat Chrysolat Chrysolat Chrysolat Chrysolat Chrysolat Chrysolat Chronology Challe ands Chinquisac Chin (see Core) Church ————————————————————————————————————	17: 179 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Cincassia 9 205 Cince 206 Cincle 206 Cincle 206 Cincuits 206 Cincuits 207 Cinculat Motion 9 207 Cinculating Medium
Chiqintos Climagra Chirograph (see Charter) Chirology Chirology Chiromaney Chiromaney Chiromaney Chiromaney Chiromaney Chiromaney Chiromaney Chiromaney Chiromane Chir		Chronodistich Chronology Chronology Chronology Chrysals (see Papibo) Chryses (see Achilles) Chrysopus Chrysolit Chry	178	Cincassia 2005 Cince 2006 Cince 2006 Cincle 2006 Cincuits 2006 Cincuits 2007 Cincuits 2007 Cinculating Medium 2007 Cinculating Medium 2007 Cinculating Medium 2007 Cinculation of the Blood (see Physiology) 2007 Cincumcision 2007
Chiqintos Clinagra Chrostaph (see Charter) Chrology Chronome Chroni Chori Chori Chloride of Nitrogen (see Chloride Chorolate Chor		Chronodistich Chronology Chronology Chronology Chrysels (see Papibo) Chrysels (see Achilles) Chrysopus Chrysology Chrysology Chrysology Chrysology Chrysology Chrysology Chrysology Chrysology Chrysology Church — Eastern (see Greek — Chrich) — of England (see England, Church of) — Greek (see Greek — Church) — Latin (see Roman — Catholic Chinch) — Roman Catholic (see Roman — Church) — (Fathers of the)	178	Cincassia 9 205 Cince 206 Gircle 206 Gircle 206 Gircle 206 Cincints 4 Circulate Motion 207 Cinculating Medium 207 Cinculation of the Blood (see Physiology) 209 Cincinasion 4 Cinculation (a feast) 200 Cincinasion 210 Cincins 211 Cispadane Republic (see Cisalpine Republic) 211 Cispadane Republic (see Cisalpine Republic) 212 Cispadana (see Paraguay and Plata, Republic of) 213 Cistation 3 Citadel 4 Citadel 5 Citadel 6 Citadel 6 Citadel 7 Citadel 7 Cistation 213 Citadel 7 Cita
Chaintos Climagra Chrodosy Chronology Chrono		Chronodistich Chronology Chronology Chronology Chronology Chrysels (see Papibo) Chrysels (see Achilles). Chrysopus Chrysolety Church — Eastern (see Greek — Church) — of England (see England, Church of) — Greek (see Greek — Church) — Latin (see Roman — Catholic Church) — Roman Catholic (see — Music (see Music,	178 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Cincassia 2005 Cince 2006 Cincle 2006 Cincuits 2006 Cincuits 2007 Cincui
Chapintos Clinagra Chrograph (see Charter) Chirology Chronomic Chronomy Chronic Chronomy Chronic Chloric Acid (see Chloric) Chloric Acid (see Chloric) Chloride of Nitrogen (see Chloride) Chloride (see Calcio) Chloride Chloride Chloride Chloride Chloride Chloride Chloride Chocolate Choc	151	Chronodistich Chonology Chronology Chronology Chrysals (see Papibo) Chryses (see Achilles) Chrysopus Chrysoletal Chaincanas Chaincanas Chaincanas Chaincanas Chainch ————————————————————————————————————	178 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Cincassia 2005 Cince 2006 Cince 2006 Cincle 2006 Cincuits 2006 Cincuits 2007 Cincular Motion 2007 Cinculating Medium 2007 Cinculating Cinc
Chejintos Clinagia Chrograph (see Charter) Chrology Chronomy Chron Chron Chron Chron Chron Chron Chron Choun Choun Choun Chloric Acid (see Chlorine) Chloric Chocam Chodowiecki (Danic' Nicholias) Chon Chloric Chlor Chloric	151 151 153 153 157 158 159	Chronodistich Chronology Chronology Chronology Chrysels (see Papibo) Chrysels (see Achilles). Chrysopus Chrysolate Chryso	178	Cincassia* Cince Cincuits Cincuit
Chejantos Climagra Chrology Chrology Chronomy Chlorite Frederic) Chlorite Chorolate Chocom Chodowiecki (Danie' Nicholas) Chor Chorolate Chorite Chorite Chorite Chorolate Chorol	151	Chronodistich Chonology Chronology Chronology Chronology Chrysals (see Papibo) Chrysappus Chrysolety Church — Eastern (see Greek — Chrich) — Greek (see Greek — Church) — Latin (see Roman — Catholic Chinch) — Roman Catholic (see — Roman — Catholic Chinch) — (Fathers of the) — Music (see Music, — Sacred) — (States of tho) — (Benjamin)	178 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Cincassia* Cince Cince Circle Circle Circle Circle Circle Circlating Motion Saws Circulating Medium Circulation of the Blood (see Physiology) Circumavigators
Chapintos Clinagra Chrology Chrology Chrology Chronome Chronomy Ch	151	Chronodistich Chronology Chronology Chronology Chronology Chryspus Chryspus Chrysolety Churoli Churoli — Eastern (see Greek — Church) — Fangland (see England, Church) — Greek (see Greek — Church) — Latin (see Roman — Catholic Church) — Roman Catholic (see Roman — Church) — (Fathers of the) — Music (see Music, — Sacred) — (States of the) — (Benjamin) Churchill (John, duke of	178	Cincassia 2005 Cince 2006 Cince 2006 Cincle 2006 Cincuits 2006 Cincuits 2007 Cincuits 2007 Cinculating Medium 2007 Cinculating (a feast) 2007 Cinculating Cinculat
Chejantos Climagra Chrology Chrology Chronomy Chlorite Frederic) Chlorite Chorolate Chocom Chodowiecki (Danie' Nicholas) Chor Chorolate Chorite Chorite Chorite Chorolate Chorol	151	Chronodistich Chonology Chronology Chronology Chronology Chrysals (see Papibo) Chrysappus Chrysolety Church — Eastern (see Greek — Chrich) — Greek (see Greek — Church) — Latin (see Roman — Catholic Chinch) — Roman Catholic (see — Roman — Catholic Chinch) — (Fathers of the) — Music (see Music, — Sacred) — (States of tho) — (Benjamin)	178	Cincassia* Cince Cince Circle Circle Circle Circle Circle Circlating Motion Saws Circulating Medium Circulation of the Blood (see Physiology) Circumavigators

0	• .	***	ā-				
620		5.3	CONTEN	TS.	,	•	
Cindad-Rodrigo	219	Cleves .	,		2491	Cock	<b>2</b> 82
Civet	"	Chents.			"	- Fighting	283
Civie Crown	"	Clifford	(George)		250	Pit	۲.
Civil Law	219		(Anne)		"	Cockade	"
List	224	Chiffs	W	••••	u	Cockchaffer	90%
Civilization		Chron	William) .	• • • •	"		285 <b>28</b> 6
Cività Vecchia	44		· · · · <b>4</b> · · · · ·		251	Cockswain	£00
Clairfait (see Clerfayt)	"		and Anticlima		253	Cocoa-Nut	4.
Clauron Claire-Josephe-Hip-			ne (see Peac		u	Cocytus	287
polyte-Legris de la Tude)	44	Clinical	Medicine		**	Cod	"
Clan	227	Chuton	George) :		255		289
Clap (Thomas)	44		sir Henry) James) (De Witt)	• • • • •	254	Code	••
Clapperton (captain Hugh) .			James)	. (	256	Civil (see Codes, les	
Clare (John)	229	Cho	· · · · · · · · ·	• • • • • •	257	Cinq)	
Clarence (earl of)	"	Chius .			~.	<ul> <li>Henri (see Christophe)</li> <li>Napoleon (see Codes.</li> </ul>	
Clarendon (in England) (earl of)	"	Clive (C	atharine) .		258	les Cinq) .	••
Claret (see Bordelais Wines)	230	— (R	obert)		4.	- of Frederic (see Prus-	
Clarichord	**	Cloacæ			260	sia, Code of)	•• •
Clarification	• 4	Clock .		• • • •	• • •	of Justinian (see Civil	4.
Clarinet	u	Closter	(see Monaste	ry) ·	261	Law)	••
Clark (John)			John Baptist noderlos de la		262	of Louisiana (see Lou- isiana)	
traveller)	44		wled		1132	Codes, les Cinq	
(Samuel I) D \	231		uarters	•	**	, les Six (see Codes, les	
(George Rogers)			ee Cotton, V	Voollen.		(Sing) .	294
Classic	233	Silk,	&c)		66	Codex	•
Claude Lorraine	235	Clothing		•	44	rescriptus	
Chandianus (Claudius)	236		de Vallon	Chalis		Alexandrinus (see Al-	
Claudius Carsar	**	(M E		• • • •	264	exandrian Copy) .	•
Class or burner	237	Clóture	(1.4) .	• •	265	Codenaton (see Navarno	
Clausenburg	***	Cloud	Se 1		266	Codrington (see Navarino, and Greece, Modern).	295
Clavichord (see Clarichord)	•4	Clove .		•••••	267	Codrus	
Clavicimbalum	••	— Ва	_1.		**	Coefficients	٠
Clavi-cylinder (see Chladin)	46	Clover			**	Cochorn (baron of)	
Clavigero (Francesco Save-		Clovis .		٠٠ و	268	Corlius (Mons)	••
по)	44	Club		• • •	269	Coenobite (see Apchorite)	•
Clavijo y Flaxardo (don Jo-		Clue				Cœur de Lion (see Richard, Cœur de Lion)	
seph)		Cluny . Clyde .		• •		Coffee .	
Clay			(George).	•	270	Coffin	293
Clemence Isaure	238	Clytem	estra		271	Cofia de Perota	٠
Clement (Titus Flavius)	• 4	Cindus	,	,	44	Copnates	•
<u> </u>		Coach			6.	Cohesion	
II , .	• '		ı y Texas	•	272	Cohort (see Legion) .	300
!!!			ee Coal)		"	Combetore (province)	•••
		Coal Coalitio		•	273		301
<u></u>		Coat of				Confor(table of)	,
VII	4.	Cobalt			"	Core	3(+)
VIII .	212		(William)		275	Core. (see Coal)	٠
<u>IX</u>		Cobentz	l (Louis cou	nt of)	276	(Sir Edward) (Thomas)	.21.
X.	4		– (John Phili	p, count	٠.	(Thomas)	310
	W 10	Cala	de)		"	Colbig	311
XII		Cebi Coblent		•		('olchester (in England)	310
xiv · · · .	**		a Capello ,		277	lord (see Abbot)	
(Jacques)	215		(principality)			Colchicum .	•
Clementi (Muzio)	• •		(city)	-	46	Colchis .	•
Clementines .	246		(field-mai sha		••	Colcothar	
Cleobis and Biton	"		Saxe, prince l			Cold (see Catarrh)	
Cleobulus	217		of (see I			Colden (Cadwallader) Colendge (Samuel Taylor)	31 s
Cleombrotus	٠.		and Charlot	ue Au-	٠.	Colibri (see Humming-Bird)	<b>'</b> '''
Cleomenes		Cocagn	gusta) .		"	Cobe	••
Cleopatra	• •		(Henry)			Corens (Gaspard de) .	315
l'lepsydra	248	Coccus				Congres (Gaspard de) .	310
Eleriavt (count of)	44	Cochaba			280	Coliscum	
Clergy	249	Coclun (	Charles Nice	olas)	"	Collateral Relations	4.
Benefit of (see Ben-	"	[ C	Chuna		801	Colla (Charles)	
efit of Clergy) Clerk (John)	"		al (see Coerr	115)	281	Colle (Charles)	317
Clerk (John)	"	COCHE	ie (lord) – (John Dun	das).	282	American Colleges	313

Colleges Electoral (see Electoral (s		, ~	•
Total Collegal Nystem		CONTENTS.	621
Total Collegal Nystem	•		•
Collegants (see Rombergh er) Gernany. 366 Collegants (see Rombergh er) Gernal Britan. 364 Collegants (see Rombergh er) Gernal Britan. 364 Collin (Hory) Joseph von). 4 Hanover. 367 Companies (See Company). 5 Companies (Joseph von). 4 Hanover. 367 Compost (Harver). 367 Co	College#Electoral (see Elec-		
Collegans (vec Rhemberghers) Collidower (see Cabbage) Collidower (see Cambage) Collidower (see C			
Collidower (see Cublage) Collid (Heury Joveph von)  "Hungary 372 Commodore 387 Commodore 388 Commodore 389 Commodore 388 Commodore 389 Commodore 388 Commodore 388 Commodore 389 Commodo	Conogial rystem		6 Committee
Colling (Vidinary Cocing (Vidinary Collingwood (Vudinery Collingwood (Vudinery Colling (Vidinary Colli			
Matthess von)	Colliflower (see Cabbage) . "	Hungary 37	2 Commodore
- d'Halleville (Joan F ) Colling (Milhim) Colling (Gran M.) Colling (See Colleges) Colling (See Colling (See Colling Colling (See Colling Colling Colling (See Colling Collin	• Committeen and contraction of		
Collins (William) 321 the Nether- Collins (William) 321 the Nether- Collins (Herbos (Jean M.) Collins (George College) 322 the Collins (George College) 323 the Collins (Mepubhe of) 324 the Collins (Merchand Africles (we Commerce) 4 the Collins (Merchand Africles (we Commerce) 4 the Collins (Merchand Africles (we Collins See Collins See Collins (Merchand Africles (we Collins See Collins See Collins See Collins See Collins (Merchand Africles (we Collins See Collins See Collins See Collins See Collins (Merchand Africles (we Collins See Collins See Collins See Collins See Collins (Merchand See Collins See Collins See Collins See Collins (Merchand See Collins See Collins See Collins See Collins See Collins (Merchand See Collins (Merchand See Collins	—— d'Haileville (Jean F ) "	ranean Sea 36	9 (Rights of) 392
Collored Herbors (Jean M.) Colland (George). Cologe (Colombia (Republic of) 323 Colombia (Republic of) 344 Colombia (Republic of) 345 Colombia (Republic of)	· Collingwood (c dimetr)	Trany	110W
Cologné. Poland. 370 Cologné. Cologné. Poland. 370 Cologné. Portugal. 370 Colomban (Republic of). 323 Colon (see Functuation). 328 Travia. 371 Colonid (see Functuation). 328 Travia. 370 Colonid (see Functuation). 328 Travia. 370 Colonid (see Functuation). 328 Travia. 370 Colonid (see Functuation). 338 Travia. 370 Colonid (see Cologne. 338 Military of Russia. (see Military Cologne.). 338 Military of Russia. (see Military Cologne.). 341 Colonid (American). 350 Colonid (American). 351 Colonid (American). 352 Colonid (American). 353 Colonid (American). 354	Colloredo . "	lawis and	Schools (see
Colompia (Republic of) 323	( Ontor of Treatment (Acut 1911)	i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i	Diago.
Colomba (Republic of ) 323 Prusia   367 Colom (See Punctuation ) 328 Colome   Spain   371 Colomal Arficles (see Commerce)   341 Colomal Arficles (see Colomal Colomal (American)   Society   Spain   372 Colomal (American)   Society   Spain   372 Colomal (American)   Society   Spain   372 Colomal (American)   Society   Spain    Comman (coconge).		Commons	
Goloured Colouring Articles (see Commerce) Colouring Paupet Goloury of Russia (see Military of Companies) Companies for carrying on (see Military of Companies) Companies for carrying on (see Military of Companies) Companies for carrying of Companies (see Fur-Trade) (see	Colombia (Republic of) 323		Doctors' (see Col-
Colonal Afficks (see Commerce) Colonaes, Paupet Colonaes,			1 Communion (see Lord's
Coloning (Vittoria) 3.44 Coloning (Vittoria) 3.50 Coloning (Vittoria) 3.50 Coloni	Colonial Articles (see Com-	Sweden and	Supper)
Military of Russia (see Military Colomes)	merce)	Morway	Community
Omers   341	, Military, of Russia	Turkey 37	2 ('omo (lake) 399
Colonzation (American) So- crety	(see Military Col-		(0.2)
Colony (Colony 34) Colony 341 Pennsula (See Fur-Trade (See Fur-Trade (See Fur-Trade) (See Fur-	Colonization (American) So-		
Colony Colon Colony Colon Colony Colon Coloning Colony Coloning C			
Colon (Coloning 3412 Chana 374 Colons (Doctrine of ) 341 the Islands of Ambeyna, Banea, the Coloning 345 Colosus 345 Coloning 345 Coloning 345 Coloning 345 Coloning 345 Coloning (Patiek). " Salamanta, Coloninatium 346 Coloninatium 347 Coloninatium 348 Coloninatium 349 Coloninatium 347 Coloninatium 348 Coloninatium 349 Coloninat			
Colors (Doctrine of ) 344 Colosus	Color	Penmsula "	John Block (See 198
Colosus (See Coloi) (See Coloi			
Columbanus (St.)	of Plants 312	* Amboyna,	Comparative Anatomy
Columbatium Columb			Compasses
Columbatum	Colonhoun (Patrick) "	va Sumatra,	Complegue
Columbatum Columbat Columbat Columbat Columbat Columbate	Continua (tar)		
College (see New York)  — (District of) — (District of) — (River	Columbarium 346	Persia . 37	3 Composite Order (see Ar-
AFRICA   375   Compostella.   Comp	Commissa		
Columbute   347	York) . "		
Columbus Columbus Columbus Columbus (Chincella (Lucius J M) Columbus (Chinated ture) Columbus Common (in archate ture) Combat (in law) Combat	(introduction)		
Columbum Columbos (Chustopher) — (m Ohee)			
Columbus (Chistopher) ————————————————————————————————————	Columbium		Compression Machines .
Columella (Lacus J M) Column (m architecture) Comb Combat (m law) Comesto Concerto Concelave Conclave Conclave Conclave Concelave Concerto Concerto Concerto Concerto Concord (in muse)  Battle at (see Lexmigton) — (Form of) — (Goddess of (see Concordance Concordance Concordance Concerto Conc	( Oliffillion		
Column (marchatecture) Column (marchatecture) Combat (m law) Comestin Comesopra Comesopra Comestin Comfort,	(m Ohe) 351	Good Hope *	Conception (Immaculate) .
Combat (m law) (355   Binenos Ayres 383   Concerto grosso   Spirituale   Concent ogrosso   Spirituale   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Concert ogrosso   Spirituale   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Concert ogrosso   Spirituale   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Spirituale   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Spirituale   Concelave   Concelave   Spirituale   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Spirituale   Concelave   Concelave   Spirituale   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Spirituale   Spirituale   Concelave   Concelave   Concelave   Spirituale   Spiri		1/65//	().
Combat (m law)   355   Buenos Ayres   383   Concetts   Conclusive   Conclusive   Conclusive   Conclusive   Concetts   Concetts   Concetts   Concett   Concetts   Concett   Concetts   Concett   Conc	(in tactics) 351	- AMIRICA "	Concerto
Combination Commission Comedit (see Drama) Comes spia Comets Comtest Comtot, Point (see Point Comfortable Commis (Philippe de) Commission Commanders Comma	Como		grosso . "
Comedy (see Drama) Comenius (John Amos) Come sopra Std Comets Commot, Point (see Point Comfort) Comfort (see Point Commot) Commot (Pinlippe de) Commise (Pinlippe de) Commise (Pinlippe de) Commise (Pinlippe de) Common (Jerome) Common (Jero	t triminal (in the f	the Canadas,	Concetti
Comenius (John Amos) Come sopra ————————————————————————————————————	Combistion		144 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
Come sopra ————————————————————————————————————		Brunswick 38	1 Conclavist
Comfort, Point (see Point Comfort, Point (see Point Comfort, Point (see Point Comfortable Commes (Philippe de) Communes (Philippe de) Commander Co	Come sopra		
Comfort, Point (see Point Comfort) 361 Comfortable Surmain and Cayenne 383 Commander Sold Mexico 384 Commondin (Jerome) South America 385 Commondin (Jerome) South America 385 Concordia Concordia Concordia Concordia Mexico 384 Concordia Sold Mexico 385 Concordia Mexico Concordia Mexico Concordia Mexico 385 Concordia Mexico M	Std		
Commotable Commes (Philippe de) 362 Comman (Philippe de) 362 Commandery Commota (Jeronie)	Comfort, Point (see Point		
Commes (Philippe de) Commander Commander Commander Commander Commander Commelin (Jerome) Commercia (Section (Morbid) Concertions (morbid)	· minimi		
Commandery Commelin (Jerome)  — (John and Cast) — (Isaac) — (Isaac	Commes (Philippe de) 362	Cavenue . 38	3 Concordia)
Commelin (Jerome)  (John and Cast )  South America 383 Concordia 410  Concrete Concretion (morbid) Concretion (morbid) Concretion (morbid) Concention (Concention) Concention (Concention) Concenting Condaming (C. Marie la) Conde (a fortress in France) dies 383 Concordia 410  Concretion (morbid) Concenting Condaming (C. Marie la) 411  Conde (a fortress in France) dies 383 — (Louis de Bourbon)	Comitia.		Concordate
Concretions (morbid)	Commelia (Jerome)		3 Concordia 410
Condencement of North America 377 Condensuable the West Indies 383  Europe Suppose dies 383  Condensua (C. Marie la) 411 Conde (a fortress in France)  Lurope George	The state of the s		
Connected the World the West In- Europe dies 383 Conde (a fortress in France)	Cor dencement	of North	Concubinage
EUROPE dies 383 (Louis de Bourbon,	Comensurable	America . 37	7 Conde (a fortress in France)
Austria 366 Commercial Courts 381 prince of)	Europk "	dies 38	J (Louis de Bourbon,
		Commercial Courts 38	prince of)

,				
622		CONTENTS.	,	•
			.4.	7.0
Conde (Louis Joseph de	410	Constance (lake of)	403	Conveyance
/I our House Icooph	412	City)	455	Conveyance
(Louis Henry Joseph, duke of Bourbon)	"	Constant de Rebecque (Ben-	400	Convoy
Condensation		jamın de)	"	Convulsion
Condenser	**	Constantia		Convulsionists (see Jansen-
Condillac (Stephen B. de)		Constantine the Great	***	ists) 510
Condition (see Bond)	414			Conway (Thomas)
Condor	••	Russia	458	Cook (James)
Condorcanqui (Joseph G.) .	416	Column (see		Cooke (George Frederic). 511
Condorcet (marquis de)	"	Column)	459	Cookery
Condottieri	418	Constantinonla	• 6	Cookery Coombe (William) 514
Conductor of Lightning	"	(General		Cooper (Anthony Ashley,
Conduit	419			first earl of Shaftes-
Cone	"	Constellations	462	bury) ·
Confederation, German (see		Constituent Assembly .	464	(Anthony Ashley,
Germany).	"	Constitution (in medicine) .		ontra antorphanes.
of the Princes		(m the Roman		bury) . 515
of Germany	4.	church) .	4.1	The state of the s
of the Rhine .	420	(in politics)		(Samuel) 516
Confession	422	Constitutions of EUROP1	463	Cooperative Societies
(in law)	"	Austria	••	Copal 517
(Auricular)	••	Austria France	409	Copartnership (see Partner-
or Augsburg (see		Germany .	479	
' Augsburg Con-	10.			Copeck
fession)	123	the Nether-	4/1	Copenhagen
Confessional		1	4000	Copernicus (Nicholas) 518
Confessions (see Augustine,		lands	171	Copiapo (a jurisdiction in
St., and Rousseau) Confirmation	••	Polend .	470	Copiapo (a jurisdiction in Chile) 520 ——— (a scapout of Chile) Copley (John Singleton)
		Portugal	171	Coular (John Surglaton)
<b>A</b>	16	Span	211	(John Sundaton land
Congestion Conglomerate (see Sand-		Su odou		Tamelbox 4) A
stone)	425	Switzerland.	474	Copper 521
Congo	"	- AMFRICA	475	Bell-Metal . 523
Batta	126	Central A-	710	Brass .
Congregational Churches		merica	488	Bronze .
Congregationalist	"	Have	484	Ores of Copper 52
Congregations	**	S America	408	Arsemete of Copper . 524
Congress	**	the United	•	Carbonate of Copper.
of the U States of		States .	476	Blife Carbonate of
America	435	Constitutionists (see Uni-		Copper . ·
Spring	439	genitus)	489	Green Carbonate
Congreve (William)	**	Constitutionnel (Le) .	**	Murate of Copper '
——— (sir William)	440	Construction	490	Neuve Copper 52.
Conic Sections (see Cone) .	441	Consul	4	Phosphate of Copper 521
Conjugation (see Verb.		Consulta .	492	Red Oxide of Copper
Grammar, Language)	4.	Consumption (in political		Sulphuret of Copper 52.
Conjunction. in astronomy		economy)	493	Gray Copper.
(see Aspect)	٠. د.	, in medicing	46.5	Purple Copper
Connanicut		(see Atrophy)	4.75	Vitreous Copper Copper Ore
Connaught		Contagion		Compositive Copper Ore
Connecticut (state) .	442	Contaring (several of this	404	Copperas 52 Copperplates (see Engraving)
		name)	4.00	Cond Cond
Conquest	AF.)	Contat (Louise)		Copt Copy 52
Conquest	448	Conte (Nicolas Jacques)	497	
Conrug (Hefinann)	AAG	Contempt	408	Copyrish Machines . 527
Consalvi (Ercole)	44	Contessa (C J S and	7,70	Copyright
Conscription	"	CWS) .	u	Coquetry . 526  Coquimbo (a jurisdiction in
Consectation	447		"	Chile)
Conservatorio (see Conser-	TTI	(see Bourbon)	499	(a city in Chile)
vatory)	"	Continental System	16	Coral (a city in Chile)
Conservatoire royal des Arts		Continental stystem	501	
et Metiers	448	Contormati	"	Coray (Adamantios)
Conservatory	44	Contour (see Outline)		Corban
(in gardening)	и	Contraband .		Corbete (J J Wm P)
Consilium abeundi	449			Corday d'Armans (M. A. C.) 53
Consistory	"	Contravallation	8.76	Corday d'Armans (M. A. C.) 531
Consolato del Mare (see		Contumacy	**	Cordilleras (see Andes, and
Commercial Law)	**	Conty, or Conti (see Bourbon)	44	Mexico)
Consols.	44	Conventicle		Cordon
Consonance	4.	Convention .		Cordova (m Spain)
Consonants	"	Money	507	
Constable	453	Conversation		Ayres)
				, ,

# CONTENTS.

Condova (town of Buenos	1	Corset	555		
Ayres)	532	Corsica	558	Remonstrants, and Goma-	
(José M.)	533	Corso	560	rists, under the article of	
Cordovan	<u>"</u> ]	Cortes	. "	Reformed Church)	583
Corea	<b>"</b> .	Cortez (Fernando)	**	Counterscarp	"
Cotoni (Tricompero)	"	Cortona (in Italy)	201	County	"
Corfu (island)		(Pietro di)		Corporate	"
(town)	234	Corundum			"
Conander	"	Corunna	ü	Coup.	"
Corilla (see Improvisation).	"	Corvée	"	d'Etat	"
Comma	"	Corvette,	"	de Main	"
Corinth		Corvey Nhalas	"	de Théaire	"
Brass	,,,,	Corvisart (Jean Nicolas)		Courland	u.
Order (see Angle	"	Corybantes	303		
Order (see Archi- tecture, and Or-		Cosel (in Silesia)	, "	Court	001
der)	"	(countess of).	4	Law)	601
	11	Cosenza	"	de Gébelin (Antoine).	"
			564	Courts of Justice	
(city)	"	Cosmo I of Medici (see	001	England	
(barl of a trout	"	Medici)		Admiralty Courts	592
Jacket (see Cork)	537	Cosmogony	"	Assizes	589
Cormorant	u	Cossacks	565	Court of Chancery (see	
Corn	539 l	Cossé (Charles de)	566	Equity)	593
-, Indian (see Maize)	"	Cossé (Charles de) Costa Furtado de Mendoça		Ecclesiastical Courts	"
Laws	"	(H. J. da)	567	Inferior Courts	58
Cornaro (Ludovico)	540	(H. J. da)			589
Corneille (Peter)	541	Guatimala)	**		590
(Thomas)	542	Guatimala) (river of Gua-		Exchequer	"
Cornelia	513	tınıala)	4.	House of Lords	501
Cornelian	44	Coster (Laurens)	"	King's Bench .	589
Cornelis (Cornelius)	**		568	Courts of the United States.	594
Cornelius Nepos		Cote Droit, and Coté Gauche		Circuit Courts	595
(Peter)	511	Côte-d'Or (mountains in Bur-		District Courts	594
Cornet (a musical instrument)	"	gundy)	570	Supreme Court	
—— (ın nuhtar y language)	"	(department of	•	Court, of the several States	
Cornu Copiæ (see Achelous		France)	1	in the United States	
and Amalthea)	"	Coterie	• "	of Love	601
Cornwall (in Connecticut) .	4.	Cotes-du-Nord	"	Courtesy	602
——— (m England)	**	(Vm de)	**	Courtray	"
Cornwallis (marquis of)	515	Cothen (Anhalt)	• •	C'ousm (Victor)	"
Coro .	"	Cothurnus		Cousin (Victor) Couston (Nicholas) Coutts (Thomas)	603
Corollary	"	(Coun (Charles) .	"	Coutts (Thomas)	"
110	.6	Cotopaxi .	4.	Covenant (see Bond and	
Coron		ં"(JG)	571	Contract)	"
Coronation.		an (Sophe Ristand)	**	(Scotush)	u
Coroner		otton	572	Coventry	"
4 oronet	547	——— Manyfacture . :	"	Covered Way	604
Corporal .		(Charles)	575	Coverture (see Husband and	
Corporation		(su Robert Bruce) .		Wife)	".
and Test Acts	548	Cottoman Library	**	Cowes	"
Corposant ***	549	Cottus (see Briarcus)	"	(Cowiey (Apranam)	
Corps	**	Cotys	"	(Cowper (William)	605
d'Armee de Bataille	• •	Couching	"	Cow-Pock (see Vaccination)	606
de Bataille		Coucy (Castellan of) .	"	Covry-Shells	207
—— de Garde .	**	Cough	577	Core (William)	607
— de Reserve · · · · · · · ·	"	Coulomb (Charles A de)	578	Coxie (Michael)	**
Volant		Coumassie		Coxie (Michael)	u
Corpulence .		Council	••	name)	46
Corpus Christi	550	, Aulic (see Aulic	P#0	name)	
Delicti  Delicti  Juris.  Cornea de Seria (J. F.)  Cornection of the Press  Cornection (Antonio Allegis)		Council)	0/9	Crab	608
Juris.	201	Bluis	280	(in spip-building)	010
Correa de Seria (J. F.)	550	of State ,	500	Carbbe (Cosmo)	"
Correggio (Antonio Allegii)	ひしひ	(Frivy)	200	Cashada (Dearle and Western)	£11
Cotteggio (ventonio vate 211)		una Dea non Laoruson	" (	Cranom (Diora and troum)	
O	ບວວ	Countel	.,	Cracow	612
Corrèze		Counsellor			012
Corndor		(in Germany)	٠.	Craft	"
Corrientes (Las)	÷	,	501	Cramer (two of this name) .	"
Chargeyes (200		Count cil, Privy)	581	Cramp	"
Cor ive Sublimate (see		Count	582	Cranberry	613
ercury)		Counterguards		Crane	614
(ALLUDRO) Of Dinon (acc we.		Countermark	"		"
tainder)		Counterpoint		Crank	ш
('orsairs'	1	Counterproof	303	Crammer ( 1 nomas)	